A LEVEL SOCIOLOGY STUDY PACK

VOLUME ONE

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INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY

- The term *sociology* was coined by Frenchman Auguste Comte (1798-1857) in 1838 from the Latin term *socius* (companion, associate) and the Greek term *logia* or *logos (*study of, speech).
- The etymological or literal definition of sociology is that it is the word or speaking about society hence a simple definition is that it is the study of **society** and **culture**
- A more formal definition of sociology may be that it is a **social science** which studies the processes and patterns of human, individual and group interaction, the forms of organization of social groups, the relationship among them and group influences
- In more popular terms, sociology may be defined as the scientific study of human society and human group behavior (Perry and Perry 1994:13).
- At personal level, sociology investigates the social causes and consequences of such things as romantic love, racial and gender identity, family conflict, deviant behavior, aging and religious faith
- At societal level sociology examines and explains matters like crime and law, poverty and wealth, prejudice and discrimination, schools and education, business firms, urban community and social movements
- At the global level, sociology studies such phenomena as population growth and migration, war and peace.as well as development

Basic concepts and key terms- Tools to think with

- **Society:** humanly created organization or system of interrelationships that connects individuals in a common culture. All the products of human interaction, the experience of living with others around us.

Products of human interaction - components of society

- **Culture:** sets of traditions, rules, symbols that shape and are enacted as feelings, thoughts, and behaviors of groups of people. Shared common norms, values and beliefs.
- **Subculture:** A smaller group of people who share norms, values and beliefs that are different from the main culture.
    - **Language**: a system of verbal symbols through which humans communicate ideas, feelings, experiences.
    - **Values:** preferences - ideas people share about what is good, bad, desirable, undesirable. The things that a culture / subculture believes are important (e.g. earning a living, owning a house).
    - **Norms:** concepts and behaviors that constitute the normal. Behavioral rules or standards for social interaction. Ways to act and behave that are seen as 'normal' within a culture / subculture.
- **Social organization:** the arrangement of the parts that constitute society, the organization of social positions and distribution of people within those positions.

- **Status:** socially defined niches, positions (student, professor, administrator)
- **Role:** every status carries a cluster of expected behaviors, how a person in that status is expected to think, feel, as well as expectations about how they should be treated by others.
- **Group:** two or more people regularly interacting on the basis of shared expectations of others' behavior; interrelated statuses and roles.
- **Institutions**: patterns of activity reproduced across time and space. Practices that are regularly and continuously repeated. Social institution is therefore a relatively stable cluster of social structures that is intended to meet the basic needs of societies. Examples include families, schools, and churches.

➢ **Social structure**: Structure refers to the **pattern** within culture and organization through which social action takes place; **arrangements** of roles, organizations, institutions, and cultural symbols that are stable over time, often unnoticed, and a changing almost invisibly. Structures organized around people, such as the family, schools, government, religion etc.

Social structure. The organized set of social relationships in which members of the society or group are variously implicated. Patterned behavior and relationships. "The patterned arrangements of role-sets, status-sets, and status sequences can be held to comprise the social structure." *Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure*. p. 370.

- **Identity:** combines the intimate or personal world with the collective space of cultural forms and social relations.

Inequality

- **Social stratification:** the division of people socio-economically into layers or strata. When we talk of social stratification, we draw attention into the unequal positions occupied by individuals in society.
- **Race:** a human group that defines itself and/or is defined by other groups as different…by virtue of innate and immutable physical characteristics. differences in culture, nationality, skin colour etc. are biological.
- **Ethnicity:** cultural practices and outlooks of a given community of people that set them apart from others. Members of ethnic groups see themselves as culturally distinct from other groups in a society, and are seen by those others to be so in return.differences in culture but is not based on biology – this is about social differences

Other common sociology terms

Term	Definition
Sociological approach	A way of understanding human society that focuses on social structures
Psychological approach	A way of understanding human behaviour by looking at individual make-up (brain, thinking patterns, personality etc.)
Biological approach	A way of understanding humans by looking at their biological make-up (genes, chromosomes, hormones etc.)

Power	Where a person or group is able to direct the behaviour of another person or group. This can be through direct exercise of power (force, dominance, authority) or indirectly (coercion, persuasion, expertise).
Social Control	Ways of ensuring people behave in socially acceptable ways, such as socialisation, laws, exercise of power etc.
Socialisation	The process of learning norms, values and beliefs. This can be primary orsecondary.
Institution of socialization	The different social structures that are involved in socialising members of society, such as the family, education system, mass media, religion etc.
Sex	A term referring the biological categories of male and female, as defined bygenes, chromosomes and hormones.
Gender	A term referring to the social categories of masculine and feminine, which are usually related to the biological categories of male and female due to stereotyping and gender role socialisation.
Age	The process of aging is biological, but there are sociological points to make about this (for example, children are treated differently to adults, the mass media tend to present negative stereotypes of older people etc.)
Stereotype	A 'typical' image of a person based on social categories such as gender, age, ethnicity, family position, job etc.
Deviance	Acting in a way that goes against a culture's norms, values and beliefs.
Beliefs	The things that a culture / subculture believes in (God, the innocence of children etc.)

Benefits of sociology to the learner

- A well trained sociology student know how to think critically about human social life
- Know how to ask important research questions
- Know how to design good social research projects, carefully collect and analyze empirical data, formulate and present their research findings
- Know how to help others understand how the social world as well as how it might be changed for better
- Enables **Social imagination**-thinking outside the box or ability to think away from the familiar routines of everyday life (C. Wright Mills).
- Without social imagination, one might try to do everything right, like working hard, getting an education and trying to get but might fail to succeed

TOPIC 1: PERSPECTIVES IN SOCIOLOGY

Historical development of sociology

Factors that led to development of sociology

- There were social and intellectual forces that shaped the ideas behind the development of sociology.

(a) Social forces

- ***The Industrial Revolution in Europe (industrialization)***
  - Many people from countryside in England were forced to migrate to cities as their lands were being taken over by landlords for intensive farming systems. This facilitated urbanization which is a topical issue in sociology
  - Within this new system, a few profited greatly while the majority worked long hours for low wages. Poverty increased and there was need to explain all these in sociological terms. It can be argued then, that sociology as a discipline developed in order to explain, describe and understand the social upheavals that took place in Europe.
  - The social reforms had to be understood and an attempt to predict the future made. Durkheim in his book *Division of labor* and Marx in his *Das Kapital* depict the changes brought in by the new capitalist system. Durkheim's concepts of mechanical and organic solidarity developed from this division of labor as a result of industrialization (refer to notes on pioneers of sociology).
  - A reaction against the industrial system and capitalism led to the labor movement and other radical movements dedicated to overthrowing the capitalist system. Karl Marx's idea of Socialism therefore emerged as an alternative vision of a worker's paradise in which wealth was equitably distributed hence the development of sociology
  - Large economic bureaucracies arose to provide the many services needed by industry and the emerging capitalist economic system. This issue of bureaucracy is central to Max Weber's writings hence this contributed to development of sociology
- ***Political revolutions (The French political revolution of 1789 and American Revolution)***
  - The impact of these revolutions on many societies was enormous, and many positive changes resulted. However, what attracted the attention of many early theorists was not the positive consequences but the negative effects of such changes. These writers were particularly disturbed by the resulting chaos and disorder, especially in France. They were united in a desire to restore order to society. Some of the more extreme thinkers of this period literally wanted a return to the peaceful and relatively orderly days of the Middle Ages. This interest in the issue of social order was one of the major concerns of classical sociological theorists, especially Comte, Durkheim, and Parsons hence the development of sociology as a discipline.
  - Harriet Martineau (1802–1876)—the First Woman Sociologist, found the workings of capitalism at odds with the professed moral principles of people in the United States; she

pointed out the faults with the free enterprise system in which workers were exploited and impoverished while business owners became wealthy. She further noted that the belief in all being created equal was inconsistent with the lack of women's rights. This contributed to the development of feminism a very important theory in sociology

- ***The Rise of Socialism***
  - Although some sociologists favored socialism as a solution to industrial problems, most were personally and intellectually opposed to it. On one side, Karl Marx was an active supporter of the overthrow of the capitalist system and its replacement by a socialist system. Although Marx did not develop a theory of socialism per se, he spent a great deal of time criticizing various aspects of capitalist society. In addition, he engaged in a variety of political activities that he hoped would help bring about the rise of socialist societies.
  - However Most of the early theorists, such as Weber and Durkheim, were opposed to socialism (at least as it was envisioned by Marx). Although they recognized the problems within capitalist society, they sought social reform within capitalism rather than the social revolution argued for by Marx. They feared socialism more than they did capitalism. This fear played a far greater role in shaping sociological theory than did Marx's support of
    the socialist alternative to capitalism.
- ***Feminism***
  - A far more focused effort of feminism was witnessed in the 1850s as part of the mobilization against slavery and for political rights for the middle class; and the massive mobilization for women's suffrage and for industrial and civic reform legislation in the early twentieth century, especially the Progressive Era in the United States. All of this had an impact on the development of sociology, in particular on the work of a number of women in or associated with the field—Harriet Martineau (Vetter, 2008), Charlotte Perkins Gilman, Jane Addams, Florence Kelley, Anna Julia Cooper, Ida Wells-Barnett, Marianne Weber, and Beatrice Potter Webb, to name a few.
- ***Urbanization***
  - The massive migration of people from rural to urban area was caused, in large part, by the jobs created by the industrial system in the urban areas. But it presented many difficulties for those people who had to adjust to urban life. In addition, the expansion of the cities produced a seemingly endless list of urban problems—overcrowding, pollution, noise, traffic, and so forth. The nature of urban life and its problems attracted the attention of many early sociologists, especially Max Weber who wrote about *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* (refer to notes on religion) and Georg Simmel's *Philosophy of Money*. In fact, the first major school of American sociology, the Chicago school, was in large part defined by its concern for the city and its interest in using Chicago as a laboratory in which to study urbanization and its problems.
- ***Religious Change***
  - Social changes brought on by political revolutions, the Industrial Revolution, and urbanization had a profound effect on religiosity. Many early sociologists came from

religious backgrounds and were actively, and in some cases professionally, involved in religion (Hinkle and Hinkle, 1954).

- Durkheim wrote one of his major works on religion i.e. he wrote on *The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life.* Morality played a key role not only in Durkheim's sociology but also in the work of Talcott Parsons. A large portion of Weber's work also was devoted to the religions of the world. Marx, too, had an interest in religiosity, but his orientation was far more critical i.e he wrote about religion as 'the opium of the people'.

(b) Intellectual Forces

- ***The Enlightenment and enlightenment thinkers***
  - The German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) defined **enlightenment** as "man's emergence from his self-imposed immaturity. Immaturity was viewed by Kant as the inability to use one's understanding without the guidance from another". The Enlightenment was a period of remarkable intellectual development and change in philosophical thought. **Philosophy** is an academic discipline that seek truth through reasoning rather than empiricism. People who study philosophy are known as philosophers
  - Enlightenment also emphasizes on rationalism. **Rationalism** is the philosophical doctrine is the campaigning arm of rationality. It asserts that reason is the sole valid basis for objective knowledge.
  - The most prominent thinkers associated with the Enlightenment were the French philosophers Charles Montesquieu, Jean Jacques Rousseau and Voltaire
  - Seventeenth-century philosophy was associated with the work of thinkers such as René Descartes, Thomas Hobbes, and John Locke.

How enlightenment and enlightenment thinkers led to development of sociology

- It included the rejection of traditional Christian and religious fanaticism and other beliefs about society. They encouraged rejection of Papal infallibility – they rejected the view that the pope is infallible/does not sin and argued that everyone responsible for his/her actions.
  They also rejected the point that the new pope was appointed by God and argued that people had the right elect presidents into office, that is, to remove and install governments into office.
- Borrowed from Isaac Newton's discovery of natural laws in regulating the world of nature and the argued that they too could reason and discover the laws that govern human society.
- Encouraged people to challenge the status quo. According to Seidman (1994) enlightenment intellectuals rebuked existing knowledge as fraught with prejudice and mindless traditions

i. *Voltaire (1694-1778)* called for freedom expression, association and religious tolerance in the French society. In this work, Voltaire described the country, England, where opinion was free and government constitutional; where religious persecution was unknown and

every one was permitted to go to heaven in his own way; where the middle class was as respectable as the nobility; where civil liberties were guaranteed and men of letters and sciences were honored. This contributed to issues of studying governance in sociology as a discipline

ii. *Montesquieu (1689-1755*) advocated for need for separation of powers and doing away with autocracy. He wrote, "When the law making and law enforcement powers are united in the same person... there can be no liberty." This also made contribution to the study of governance in sociology

- ❖ He argued that social institutions have an interdependent and correlative relationship with
  one another and are dependent on the form of the whole. Therefore, the whole is greater than the sum of its parts (the idea which was later adopted by functionalist sociological theorists).
- ❖ Montesquieu studied forms of government such as the republic, aristocracy, monarchy and despotism. He can be credited for being the first to use the comparative method of social research (where he compared several governments from different societies). He also used the ideal type method that was later adopted by Weber on bureaucracy hence the development of sociology as a discipline.

iii. *Rousseau (1712-1778*) wrote about The Social Contract Theory which laid down a new scheme of social organization. He believed that 'man is born free, but everywhere he is in chains.'(i.e is everywhere subject to government). He was among the first philosophers to address systematically the origins, forms and consequences of inequality in society hence the study of social inequality in sociology.

- ❖ On government, he argued that governments originated in order to protect the property of the rich. Karl Marx later adopted this idea in his study of class struggles hence the development of Marxist sociological theory.
- ❖ On gender, Rousseau argued that “men should be strong and active while women should be weak and passive.” This view influenced how he looked at education, for example, where he argued that a woman’s education must be planned in relation to man. Women, in as far as he was concerned, existed in order t be pleasing in man’s sight, to win his respect and love. These are the ideas heavily criticized by feminist hence the development of feminist sociological theory.

The Conservative Reaction to the Enlightenment (Louis de Bonald (1754–1840) and Joseph de Maistre (1753–1821)

- ❖ These men were disturbed by the ideas of the Enlightenment thinkers, which they regarded as destructive. They therefore developed a catholic counter – revolutionary philosophy that called for a restoration of the old order/regime (ancient regime) that had been destroyed by the Revolution of 1789. They yearned for the golden past and tried everything in their will to turn back the hands of the clock. Their call for order in the society influenced the ideas of most functionalist sociological theorists who wrote about importance of order in the society

- They also argued far from individuals constituting society, it is society that crates the individuals by means of moral education. Durkheim later called this social facts hence the development of sociology. It was society that produced the individual, primarily through the process of socialization
- Furthermore, they argued that every institution in society is positively functional – no institution disrupts or is bad for society. They also argued that institutions are parts of a society, which are interdependent and interrelated. This influenced ideas of functionalists who wrote about the importance of family institution for instance as being important for the functioning of the education and work institution.

Conclusion on contribution of enlightenment to development of sociology

- Sociology in general, and French sociology in particular, have from the beginning been an uncomfortable mix of Enlightenment and counter-Enlightenment ideas (Ritzer 2011). It developed mainly as counter reaction to the enlightenment era. There are; however, some ideas or notions that were adopted by classical sociologists such as Saint Simon and Comte that directly came from Rousseau and Montesquieu.

✹ ***Advances in natural sciences.***

- Those associated with the most successful sciences (physics, biology, and chemistry) like Isaac Newton and Charles Darwin were accorded honored places in society. Sociologists (especially Comte, Durkheim, Spencer, Mead, and Schutz) from the beginning were preoccupied with science, and many wanted to model sociology after the successful physical and biological sciences.
- This influenced Auguste Comte who first coined Sociology "Social Physics" modeling it as a science, after the Newtonian physics. This led Sociology attain the name it has today and the debate whether it is a science or not.
- Spencer also came up with "social Darwinism" after Charles Darwin's theory of evolution.

The contribution of Sociology pioneers to the development of sociology (according to Henslin and Nelson 1995: Giddens 1996: Macionis 1997)

1. Auguste Comte French social philosopher (1798-1857)

- He was the first social philosopher to coin and to use the term sociology (Nobbs, Hine and Flemming 1978) as well as the first to call himself a sociologist
- He defined sociology as the scientific study of social dynamics and social static
- Like pattern and procedures of the natural sciences, he argued sociology can study society and social phenomena
- Comte also believed in the potential of social scientists to work toward the betterment of society.

- ❖ He held that once scholars identified the laws that governed society, sociologists could address problems such as poor education and poverty (Abercrombie et al. 2000).
- ❖ Comte named the scientific study of social patterns **positivism** or "positive philosophy," to combat what he considered to be the negative and destructive philosophy of the Enlightenment**.**
- ❖ Comte was in line with, and influenced by, the French counterrevolutionary Catholics (especially Bonald and Maistre). However, his work can be set apart from theirs on at least two grounds. First, he did not think it possible to return to the Middle Ages; advances in science and industry made that impossible. Second, he developed a much more sophisticated theoretical system than his predecessors, one that was adequate to shape a good portion of early sociology
- ❖ Comte argued for an understanding of society he labeled *The Law of Three Stages*. Comte, not unlike other enlightenment thinkers, believed society developed in stages.
    - The first was the **theological stage** where people took a religious view of society. The belief that society was an expression of God's will. In particular, the social and physical world is seen as produced by God.
    - The second was the **metaphysical stage** where people understood society as natural (not supernatural). It was characterized by the belief that abstract forces like "nature," rather than personalized gods, explain virtually everything.
    - Comte's final stage was the scientific or **positivist stage**, which he believed to be the pinnacle of social development. In the scientific stage, society would be governed by reliable knowledge and would be understood in light of the knowledge produced by science, primarily sociology. People now tended to give up the search for absolute causes (God or nature) and concentrated instead on observation of the social and physical world in the search for the laws governing them.

2. Emile Durkheim, French sociologist (1858-1917)

- ❖ He helped establish sociology as a formal academic discipline
- ❖ He defined sociology as the study of **social facts**.
- ❖ By social facts, he meant the patterns of behavior that characterize a social group in a given society.
- ❖ Durkheim believed that sociologists could study objective "social facts" (Poggi 2000). He also believed that through such studies it would be possible to determine if a society was "healthy" or "pathological." He saw healthy societies as stable, while pathological societies experienced a breakdown in social norms between individuals and society.(OpenStax book http://cnx.org/content/col11762/1.6)
- ❖ Some regard Durkheim as the first sociologist to apply statistical methods to the study of social phenomena (Macionis, 1997; Clahoun, et al, 1994)
- ❖ In *The Rules of Sociological Method* (1895/1982), Durkheim differentiated between two types of social facts—material and nonmaterial. Although he dealt with both in the course of his work, his main focus was on *nonmaterial social facts* (for example, culture, social institutions) rather than *material social facts* (for example, bureaucracy, law).
- ❖ This concern for nonmaterial social facts was already clear in his earliest major work, *The Division of Labor in Society* (1893/1964). His focus there was a comparative analysis

of what held society together in the primitive and modern cases. He concluded that earlier societies were held together primarily by nonmaterial social facts, specifically, a strongly held common morality, or what he called a strong *collective conscience*.

- ❖ The advent of the industrial era meant the emergence of a new type of solidarity. Durkheim contrasted two types of solidarity, mechanical and organic, and related them to the division of labour
- ❖ According to Durkheim, traditional cultures with a low division of labour are characterized by mechanical solidarity

Durkheim's study of suicide rates

- ➢ In examining official suicide statistics in France, Durkheim found that certain categories of people were more likely to commit suicide than others. He discovered, for example, that there were more suicides amongst men than amongst women, more Protestants than Catholics, wealthier than poor, and more single people than married people.
- ➢ These findings led Durkheim to conclude that there are social forces *external to the individual* which affect suicide rates. He related his explanation to the idea of social solidarity and to two types of bonds within society – social integration and social regulation. Durkheim argued that people who were strongly integrated into social groups, and whose desires and aspirations were regulated by social norms, were less likely to commit suicide. He identified four types of suicide, in accordance with the relative presence or absence of integration and regulation.

i. **Egoistic suicides** are marked by low integration in society and occur when an individual is isolated, or when his or her ties to a group are weakened or broken. For example, the low rates of suicide amongst Catholics could be explained by their strong social community while the personal and moral freedom of Protestants mean that they 'stand alone' before God. Marriage protects against suicide by integrating the individual into a stable social relationship, while single people remain more isolated within society

ii. **Anomic suicide** is caused by a lack of social regulation. By this. Durkheim was referring to the social conditions of anomie when people are rendered 'norrnless' as a result of rapid change or instability in society The loss of a fixed point of reference for norms and desires - such as in times of economic upheaval or in personal struggles like divorce - can upset the balance between people's circumstances and their desires.

iii. **Altruistic suicide** occurs when an individual is 'over-integrated' - social bonds are too strong - and values society more than him- or herself. In such a case, suicide becomes a sacrifice for the ‘greater good' e.g. Islamic 'suicide bombers' are examples of altruistic suicides. Durkheim saw these as characteristic of traditional societies where mechanical solidarity prevails.

iv. **Fatalistic suicide.** Although Durkheim saw this as of little contemporary relevance, he believed that it results when an individual is over-regulated by society: The oppression of the individual results in a feeling of powerlessness before fate or society:

3. Karl Marx (German, 1818-1883)

- ❖ Marx was not a sociologist and did not consider himself one (Ritzer 2011) however there is a sociological theory to be found in Marx’s work.
- ❖ He identified several modes of production in the history of humankind. These are:

(a) Primitive communalism
(b) Slavery
(c) Feudalism
(d) Capitalism
(e) Socialism- resources and means of production are collectively owned. Transitory phase towards communism.
(f) Communism- an economic and political system where all societal members are socially equal It is sometimes viewed as the same as socialism, however it is the finest form of socialism.

- He introduced key concepts in sociology like social class, social class conflict, social oppression, alienation, etc.
- According to Marx, economic forces are the keys to underestimating society and social change.
- He believed that the history of human society has been that of class conflict.
- Marx predicted that inequalities of capitalism would become so extreme that workers would eventually revolt. This would lead to the collapse of capitalism, which would be replaced by communism.
- Communism is an economic system under which there is no private or corporate ownership: everything is owned communally and distributed as needed. Marx believed that communism was a more equitable system than capitalism.
- Marx introduced one of the major perspectives in sociology, called social conflict theory (Macionis, 1997)

4. Max Weber, German Sociologist (1864-1920)

- According to him, sociology is the scientific study of human social action.
- Proposed a philosophy of antipositivism whereby social researchers would strive for subjectivity as they worked to represent social processes, cultural norms, and societal values **(subjective meanings**)
- This approach led to some research methods whose aim was not to generalize or predict (traditional in science), but to systematically gain an in-depth understanding of social worlds.
- The different approaches to research based on positivism or antipositivism are often considered the foundation for the differences found today between quantitative sociology and qualitative sociology. **Quantitative sociology** uses statistical methods such as surveys with large numbers of participants. Researchers analyze data using statistical techniques to see if they can uncover patterns of human behavior. **Qualitative sociology** seeks to understand human behavior by learning about it through in-depth interviews, focus groups, and analysis of content sources (like books, magazines, journals, and popular media).

5. Herbert Spencer, British Social Philosopher, (1820-1903)

- He viewed society as an organic system, having its own structure and functioning in ways analogous to the biological system.
- Spencer's ideas of the evolution of human society from the lowest ("barbarism") to highest form ("civilized") according to fixed laws were famous. It was called "Social Darwinism", which is analogous to the biological evolutionary model.
- Social Darwinism is the attempt to apply by analogy the evolutionary theories of plant and animal development to the explanation of human society and social phenomena

Research findings on the development of sociology

- Sociology is a generalizing and generalized science not a particularizing science. It studies social factors that all social phenomena have in common whether they are economic or political. Economics deals with economic behavior whilst political science deals with political behavior
- Sociology is a social science, a humanistic science like economics, anthropology and psychology. It is not a physical science. It deals with social universe and not with physical evidence
- It is an objective science and not a normative science. It is concerned with facts and not value judgments upon them. Durkheim in his rules of sociological method argued that the sociologist must 'eradicate all preconceptions' and deal with facts rather than his ideas about social facts
- Sociology is both a rational and empirical science .It is empirical in the sense that it is based on observation and experimentation. It is rational as it stresses on reason .It's results are neither speculative nor based on supernatural revelation
- The different approaches to research based on positivism or antipositivism are often considered the foundation for the differences found today between quantitative sociology and qualitative sociology.

Sociology and Social policy

- Mkandawire (2011) defines social policy as collective interventions directly affecting transformation in social welfare, social institutions and social relations
- Social policy also refers to the actions that are taken by the government to maintain and improve the welfare of its citizens. It includes social security, health and welfare services, State pensions, housing, education, and crime and its treatment
- Sociology identifies problems from the people and proposes measures to combat the identified problems which leads to policy formulation

Social problems

- A social problem is some aspect of social behavior that gives rise to conflict in society and/or misery for particular individuals.
  - Voluntary problems
    - Divorce
    - Vandalism and crime
    - Abortion
    - Drug abuse
    - Corruption etc
  - involuntary problems
    - the elderly
    - casteism/regionalism
    - unemployment
    - sexual abuse
    - poverty

- overpopulation
- traffic problems
- diseases etc

- This distinction between the voluntary and the involuntary may be criticized as many social problems are a mixture of the two. Behavior is patterned, follows social trends and is influenced by structural forces.

Social policy initiatives in Zimbabwe (social security measures)

- Housing policies
  - Enforcing housing standards(storey building advocated by president in 2016)
  - National housing fund
  - Setting building societies (NBS)
  - Mobilizing people in solving housing problems
  - Provision of financial and technical assistance to house owners
  - Site service scheme (kuwadzana)
- Educational policies
  - Scholarship programme (Presidential scholarship)
  - Educational grants(BEAM)
  - Satellite school programme
  - Computerization of education
  - Civic education (national pledge)
  - Science programmes (STEM)
- Health policies
  - Immunization policy
  - National nutritional policy
  - National village health workers
  - Child spacing programmes
  - National Aids policy
  - Voluntary testing and counselling

Challenges to social policy initiatives

- Culture
- Lack of communication
- Escalating poverty
- Public bureaucracy
- Financial constrains
- Political unrest/interference
- High dependency on donor funding
- Budgetary constraints

Social policy initiatives in other societies :Ghana

- The Ghana National Social Protection Strategy (GNSPS) started in 2007 and focused on
  - ❖ Poverty eradication through social protection programmes
  - ❖ Reduced inequality
  - ❖ Livelihood improvement in Ghana to be achieved through a new social grant scheme to provide basic and secure income for the most vulnerable households

Livelihood/food security

- Fertilizer subsidies programme
- Pension schemes

Education

- School feeding programme
- Free compulsory basic education (FCBE)
- Free school uniforms

Health

- Free maternal and child healthcare
- Pro-poor exemptions for indigents aged 70 and more

Challenges

- Dependency on donor support
- Political
- Financial
- Selection of beneficiaries

USA

- Health Management Associates community strategies (HMACS) works on
  - Suicide prevention
  - Child welfare
  - Probation, incarceration, juvenile justice
  - Homelessness and food security
  - Aging
  - Education substance use disorders Challenges
  - Immigration
  - Guns

Sociology as a Science

- **Natural science** is the study of the physical features of nature and the ways in which they interact and change. Astronomy, biology, chemistry, geology, and physics are all natural sciences.
- **Social science** is the study of the social features of humans and the ways in which they interact and change. The social sciences include sociology, anthropology, economics, history, psychology, and political science. (Schaefer 2013)

Characteristics of Science subjects

- A subject can be called a science if its inquiry has a methodology of inquiry physical sciences these: physics, chemistry and biology have:
  - A methodology of inquiry that makes a research design ,
  - the hypothesis formulation,
  - data collection; analysis
  - Testing of the data; its verification and formulating of theory.
- Objectivity-see or accept facts as they are not as one might wish them to be. If they don't remain objective but become **subjective**, then their work ceases to be scientific and becomes corrupted and distorted.
  - Ethically neutral- it only seeks knowledge and not allow values to distort the conduct of research The hypothetico-deductive method further requires that the researcher be totally neutral at all times, and in no way allow their own views or prejudices to colour any aspect of the research programme.
  - Science has the following characteristics such as objectivity, observation, accurate prediction, experimentation, accurate measurement, generalization and cause-effect relationships.

The scientific nature of sociology

- There exists a great controversy about the exact nature of Sociology. The question whether sociology is a science or not?
- As a result two opposite views are available about the nature of Sociology.
- For one group of Sociologists Sociology is a science because Sociology adopts and applies the scientific method (positivism, objectivity). Founding fathers of Sociology Auguste Comte, Emile Durkheim and others subscribe to this view.
- Others hold different view and opine Sociology is not a science (anti positism, subjectivity). Weber believed that it was difficult, if not impossible, to use standard scientific methods to accurately predict the behavior of groups as people hoped to do.

Sociology is a Science

- According to Auguste Comte and Durkheim, "Sociology is a science because it adoptsand applies the scientific method. Sociology does make use of scientific methods in the study of its subject matter. Hence Sociology is a science because:

1. **Sociology adopts scientific method:** Sociology studies social events by adopting scientific method. Though it cannot do experiment with men in a laboratory still man's social

behaviour is subject to scientific investigation like natural phenomenon. It employs scientific methods as scales of Sociometry schedule, case study, interview and questionnaire which is used to quantitatively measure social phenomenon.

2. **Investigation is possible:** Sociology conducts many experiments indirectly and employs scientific methods. e.g. Elton Mayo's field experiment at the Hawthorne works of the Western Electricity Company in Chicago on the effect of variables like lighting on worker productivity. Sociologists use statistical methods in their analyses. For example, if they want to know about families with low incomes have more deaths, they collect data.
3. **Observation is possible:** The whole social world is its laboratory. In laboratory, experiments are conducted to measure the relationship between two variables, keeping other factors constant. In sociology, the same can be done, but not in a formal laboratory but through statistics. 'Newton did not invent their laws inside a laboratory. Besides laboratory experiment is not the only criteria of science. Rist (1970, 2000) did participant observation on the effects of labelling in an African American grade school with an African American faculty.
4. **Comparison is possible:** Sociologists use comparisons between groups, communities and societies. It is readily available with the sociologists. Comparative method is one of the important methods in scientific investigation e.g. Max Weber's comparison of the correlation between early capitalism and Calvinism in *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*
5. **Generalisation is possible:** Sociologists seek universal generalisations. For example, incest taboo (prohibition of sex relationship between mother and son, brother and sister, and father and daughter) is a universal general truth. Sociology makes laws and attempts to predict. It tries to discover laws that generally applicable in all the societies, irrespective of actual differences.
6. **Accurate measurement is possible:** Sociology, like natural sciences also accurately measures social phenomena or relationships. It is possible to measure social relationships by employing statistical method, scales measurement and sociometry
7. **Prediction is possible:** Like natural sciences sociology does frame laws and attempts to predict more accurately. On the basis of cause-effect relationship sociology can accurately predict about future. If there will be dowry in society then it will lead to suicide, poverty. e.g. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) told teachers of several grades in an elementary school that certain children in their class were academic "spurters," who would increase their performance that year. That prediction came to pass in what is known as self-fulfilling prophecy
8. **Objectivity is possible**: Like natural sciences Sociology also makes objective study. The statement that dowry is a social evil is an objective statement which is based on facts collected by sociologists. Further Survey and revivification proves this. Sociology can also make objective study of social phenomena.

9. **Sociology describes cause-effect relationship:** Like natural sciences Sociology also traces the cause and find the answers. While studying family or population growth Sociology has traced the relationship between family disorganization and divorce and population growth and poverty. Family disorganization is the cause of divorce and population growth is the cause of poverty. Thus sociology describes cause-effect relationship in social disorganization and population explosion. Hence sociology is a science.

Sociology is not a Science:

- There are some others like Max-weber who deny the status of science to Sociology. He said Sociology can't be an objective Science. However, those who deny the status of science to Sociology they put forth following arguments:

1. **Lack of complete objectivity:** Sociology cannot be called a science because it cannot maintain complete objectivity with social phenomena. Sociologist has his own prejudice and bias hence he cannot observe his subject with complete detachment. Complete objectivity in the study of human behavior is impossible Sociology deals with social relationships which cannot studied like physical objects. Hence objectivity is not possible in Sociology.
2. **Lack of laboratory experiments:** Sociology is not a science because it can't make experimentation. Sociology deals with human relationships which cannot be put to laboratory test. Human relationship is abstract in nature. Experiments can't be done with abstract things.
3. **Lack of accurate Prediction:** Like natural sciences Sociology can't accurately make prediction. Natural Sciences make prediction on the basis of certain data. But Sociology deals with social relationships and human behaviour which are so uncertain and peculiar that it can't make any accurate prediction about it.
4. **Lack of accurate measurement:** Sociology can't make accurate measurement like natural sciences. There are definite standards of measurement like k.g. Meter by which it is possible to measure things. But in Sociology there are no such measuring instruments. Besides sociology deals with social relationships which is qualitative in nature which can't be measured.
5. **Lack of universally applicable generalization**: Sociology can't make generalisations like natural sciences which is universally applicable. Sociology deals with human behaviour and no two individual are alike. Hence the conclusions drawn by Sociology can't be uniform or universally applicable. Social Phenomena is so complex and complicated and is governed by so many factors that it is really difficult to draw a conclusion which will be universally applicable.
6. **Terminological Inefficiency:** Sociology suffers from terminological inefficiency. Sociology has not yet became able to develop adequate set of scientific terms. Many terms used in Sociology is vague and carry different meaning to different persons. For example the term caste and class has not yet acquired clear meaning.
7. **Lack of consensus among theorists:** scientists theories agree but sociological theories do not eg functionalist and conflict theory do not agree with each other

Conclusion of scientific nature of sociology

Sociology is largely a science, a social science not a natural science.Famous Sociologist Robert Bierstedt in his book "The social order" clearly explain the nature of Sociology in the following way:

(1) Sociology is a social and not a natural science.
(2) Sociology is a positive and not a normative science.
(3) Sociology is a pure science and not an applied science.

(4) Sociology is an abstract science and not a concrete science.
(5) Sociology is a generalising science and not a particularising science.
(6) Sociology is both a rational and an empirical science.

Relationship between sociology and other Social Sciences

- **Social science** is the study of the social features of humans and the ways in which they interact and change. The social sciences include sociology, anthropology, economics, history, psychology, and political science. (Schaefer 2013)
- Elements of sociology found in other social sciences
- Sociology investigates social and **cultural** aspects of group behaviour like in social anthropology. Sociology study human society and is concerned with all kinds of social groups like families, friends, tribes which social anthropology also focuses on
- Sociology focus on environmental factors that influence human behaviour like psychology do. There are some common area of study such as social disorganization, public opinion which are being studied by both Sociologists and Psychologists
- Sociologist also seek to address questions on the origin and nature of power, explanations of voting behavior which are interests to political scientists. War, Propaganda, authority, communal riots and law are also sociology elements studied in political science.
- Part of Sociology studies social problems like poverty, unemployment which are regarded as economic problems in economics
- Sociology through Marxists emphasizes on caste and class in the society the same aspects history also cover e.g Ndebele caste, pre 1789 French society caste

Sociology and Anthropology relationship:

- Have almost identical theoretical interests, since they both investigate social and cultural aspects of group behaviour.
- Like anthropologists, sociologists also study culture;
- Do research on group structure and belief systems, as well as on how people communicate with one another.
- Evan Pritchard considers social anthropology as a branch of Sociology.
- To have a comprehensive understanding of present society Sociology takes the help of anthropology.
- Sociology accepts the anthropological conclusion that 'racial superiority is not responsible for mental development.'

Differences

- Sociologists concentrate more on social relationships than on **culture**, whereas the social anthropologist is very interested in ideas and beliefs (religious and symbolic) as well as social relationships
- Sociology studies society as a whole whereas anthropology studies man as a part of society i.e culture
- Unlike anthropologists, sociologists focus primarily on industrialized societies. Whereas Anthropology studies ancient and non-literate societies.

Sociology and Psychology relationship:

- Like psychologists, sociologists also study how people adjust to the difficulties of life.
- As human mind and personality is being influenced by social environment, culture, customs and traditions hence psychology take the help from Sociology to understand this.

Differences:

- And unlike psychologists, sociologists stress factors *external* to the individual to determine what influences people and how they adjust to life.
- Psychology has, however, adhered to a more scientific approach, seeing the laboratory experiment as the most effective means of investigation. Most sociologists see the laboratory as too isolated from reality to give an adequate description, explanation and prediction of everyday behaviour.
- Sociology is a science of society but Psychology is a science of mind.

Sociology and Political Science relationship:

- Political scientists use many of the same methods of research – questionnaires, interviews, participant observation – that are available to sociologists.
- Like political scientists, sociologists study how people govern one another, especially how those in power affect people's lives.
- Sociology greatly benefited by the books written by political scientists like Plato, Aristotle and Kautilya such as The Republic, The Politics and Arthasastra respectively.

Differences:

- Sociology is a science of society and social relationship whereas political science is a science of state and government
- The scope of sociology is very wide i.e whole society but scope of political science is limited i.e political aspects of society.

Sociology and Economics relationship:

- Like economists, sociologists do research on how a society's goods and services are distributed, especially how that distribution results in inequality
- Economics is greatly benefited by the research conducted by Sociologists like Max-weber's rationalization and bureaucracy

Differences:

- Sociology is a science of society and social relationships whereas economics is a science of wealth and choice.
- Economics differs from sociology in its area of interest. Economics has been defined as the study of the twin factors of scarcity and choice in the satisfaction of human wants. Sociology is much more widespread in its interests, examining the inter-relationships between all aspects of society
- Both Sociology and economics differ from each other in respect of the methods and techniques they use for their study. In Economics the use and accumulation of statistics are seen as important. Sociology has less agreement on methodology, and many sociologists treat the use of statistics with a great deal of suspicion

Sociology and History relationship:

- Their mutual dependence led G.H. Howard to remark that, "History is past Sociology and Sociology is present history."
- Historians now study caste, class and family by using sociological data. Sociology provides the background for the study of history.

Difference:

- Sociology is a science of society and is concerned with the present society. But history deals with the past events and studies the past society.

Theoretical perspectives in sociology

- In Sociology, perspectives are paradigms or schools of thought
- Paradigms are theories that provide broad perspectives that help explain many different aspects of social life
- A theory is a statement of how and why specific facts are related (Macionis 2012)
- Haralambos and Holborn(5th ed) defines a theory as a set of ideas which claims to explain how something works
- A sociological theory is therefore a set of ideas which claims to explain how society or aspects of society work
- It should also be noted that the terms "perspectives" and "schools of thought" are often used interchangeably with the term "theory".
- Sociologists make use of three major theoretical approaches: the structural-functional approach, the social-conflict approach, and the symbolic-interaction approach (Macionis 2012 : Henslin 2012: Schaefer 2013)

1. The functionalism perspective (structural-functional theory)

- Functionalism is a theoretical framework in which society is viewed as composed of various parts, each with a function that, when fulfilled, contributes to society's equilibrium (balance) (Henslin 2012)
- Major functionalist:
  - Auguste Comte
  - Emile Durkheim
  - Herbert spencer
  - Talcott Parsons
  - Robert K Merton
  - Bronisław Malinowski
  - Alfred Reginald Radcliffe-Brown
  - Niklas Luhmann
  - George Murdock

(*last name important than first name*)

What makes up society (how society is constructed)

- Society is structured. Social structure can be seen as the sum total of normative behavior
- Main parts (structure) of the society include institutions with family being the basic

A Social institution is a group of people organized for a specific purpose(s); patterns of beliefs and behaviors focused on meeting social needs such as government, education,

family, healthcare, religion, and the economy. For example a nuclear family is organized to produce and rear children

How society functions ('operate')

- Like a biological organism (organic analogy). *Auguste Comte and Herbert Spencer* viewed society as a kind of living organism (Henslin 2012)
- Just as a person or animal has organs that function together, they wrote, so does society. And like an organism, if society is to function smoothly, its parts must work together in harmony.
- Just as the structural parts of the human body—the skeleton, muscles, and various internal organs—function not independently but interdependently to help the entire organism survive, social structures work together to preserve society e.g family socialize members into the society, the school prepare people for work
- **Organic analogy** (organismic analogy) is the comparison of the society to the functioning of the biological organism
- *Emile Durkheim* also viewed society as being composed of many parts, each with its own function. When all the parts of society fulfill their functions, society is in a "normal" (healthy) state. If they do not fulfill their functions, society is in an "abnormal" or "pathological"state
- Durkheim believed that individuals may make up society, but in order to study society, sociologists have to look beyond individuals to social facts.
- Like the human body society is more than the sum of its individual parts
- Durkheim called the communal beliefs, morals, and attitudes of a society the **collective conscience**
- Durkheim also believed that **social integration**, (the strength of ties that people have to their social groups) was a key factor in social life.
- *Robert Merton (1910–2003)* used the term **functions** to refer to the beneficial consequences (effects) of people's actions. Functions help keep a group (society, social system) in balance
- In contrast, according to him **dysfunctions** are consequences that harm a society
- He distinguished between manifest and latent functions.
- **Manifest functions** are actions intended to help some part of a system e.g due to low birth rate government can give bonuses to families. The intention or manifest function is to increase childbirth
- **Latent functions** are unintended actions that help a system adjust. e.g if the bonuses work as the birth rate jumps, so does the sale of diapers and baby furniture. Because the benefits to these businesses were unintended consequences, they are latent functions of the bonus
- Human actions can also hurt a system. Because such consequences usually are unintended, Merton called them **latent dysfunctions** (actions that that bring unintended consequences which harm a society) e.g to collect more bonuses, people may keep having more children, population increase sharply, poverty may increase, welfare is reinstated, taxes jump, nation erupts into protest(these become latent dysfunctions of the bonus program)
- *Talcott parsons (1902–79)* argues that any society has four functional needs or prerequisites that need to be met for it to survive: these are adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency (AGIL).

- **Functional needs or functional prerequisites** are basic needs or requirements that must be met by societies if they are to survive e.g means of producing food, shelter, socialization process
- A functional prerequisite involves at least a minimum degree of integration between the parts which is based on value consensus.
- **Value consensus (moral consensus)** is a common agreement held by members of society about values. Major values are expressed in various social institutions which will be integrated. The goals of various institutions become uniform e.g productivity (economic system focuses mass production-education system is partly concerned with producing skills to expand production-The family system rise a demand in consumer durables like TVs-the political system is partly concerned with raising productivity through government policy initiatives)
- In a healthy society, all parts work together to maintain stability, a state called **dynamic equilibrium(social equilibrium)(**Parsons 1961).value consensus leads to social equilibrium
- **Disequilibrium** happens when the parts of the society are not working together for stability

Why some groups in society are more powerful than others

- Functionalists assume it is necessary to have some individuals and groups be more powerful than others because only a limited can take important decisions through meritocracy
- There must be leaders in the society and organizations otherwise there will be no social order
- The theory assumes that a certain degree of order and stability is essential for the survival of social systems
- Value consensus integrates various parts of the society. There will social unity and solidarity
- Socialization will internalize and transmit values from generation to generation. There will be value institutionalization(maintaining) and value orientation(transmission)
- Social control maybe initiated to those who deviate from society's values to maintain social order

What causes social change?

- Social change occurs when it is functionally necessary to do so e.g in modern societies educational systems tend to expand because such societies require a more literate and numerate population than less 'advance' societies
- **Social change** is the change in a society created through social movements as well as through external factors like environmental shifts or technological innovations
- Change may occur through adaptation or integration
- **Adaption** is when an existing institutions readjust to meet new needs e.g new curriculum in Zimbabwean education system
- **Integration** is when a society adopts a new element and makes it part of itself e.g social media use in Zimbabwean society has been integrated into the society
- Functionalists think change is evolutionary (gradual) and revolutionary (swift)
- Durkheim argued that as society grew more complex from simplex, social order made the transition from mechanical to organic.

- **Mechanical solidarity** is a type of social order maintained by the collective consciousness of a culture. People tend to do the same type of work, they tend to think and act alike e.g like hunter-gatherers societies
- **Organic solidarity** is social order based around an acceptance of economic and social differences, a characteristic of complex societies.
- Organic solidarity allows people with differing values to coexist. As the division of labor expands, people become increasingly dependent upon one another
- While the transition from mechanical to organic solidarity is, in the long run, advantageous for a society, Durkheim noted that it creates anomie
- **Anomie** is a situation of chaos, "lawlessness" and "normlessness" ;Collective consciousness becomes dysfunctional. Anomie is experienced in times of social uncertainty, such as war or a great upturn or downturn in the economy

Individual and society

- Individuals are formed by the society through the influence of such institutions as the family, school and workplace
- They leave room for individual to change the society
- Durkheim stated that for him, the individual is the point of arrival not of departure i.e sociology is not about the individual
- Therefore functionalism is a **macro level theory** i.e they examine large scale patterns of society

Criticism of functionalism

- It can't adequately explain social change.
- Functionalism over- emphasizes the consensus that exists in society.
- No values are common to all members of society though some values may overlap.
- Social stability may result from a manipulated or false consensus for example the use of force by army or police to comply.
- Consensus does not yield positive results all the time. It may bring disorder for if people agree on some destructive activity. As people compete for scarce resources there is no consensus but conflict
- Functionalism draws an organic analogy between society and organism, yet the organism is biological and has a natural life process and society is not.
- The needs of society mentioned by Parsons are not needs of the society but needs of those in power within the society.
- Functionalists such as Parsons and Merton appear to be using their own middle-class, Middle American view of the world and saying this is what society is like.

2. Conflict Theory-Marxism

- conflict theory a theoretical framework in which society is viewed as composed of groups that are competing for scarce resources (Henslin 2012)
- Conflict theory looks at society as a competition for limited resources.
- This perspective is a **macro-level** approach most identified with the writings of German philosopher and sociologist Karl Marx (1818–1883), who saw society as being made up of individuals in different social classes who must compete for social, material, and political resources such as food and housing, employment, education, and leisure time

- Where functionalists see stability and consensus, conflict sociologists see a social world in continual struggle
- Marxists observe that in order to survive humans must produce food and material objects
- In so doing they enter into social relationships with other people
- Production also involves a technical component known as the forces of production which includes technology, raw materials and scientific knowledge employed in the process of production

What makes up society (how society is constructed)

- Like functionalists, sociologists employing conflict theories emphasize the importance of structures within society (Giddens, 2009)
- All societies are composed of social institutions (the major spheres of social life, or societal subsystems, organized to meet human needs)
- In his analysis of society, Marx argued that one institution—the economy—dominates all the others and defines the character of the entire society
- For Marx, society's constructions were predicated upon the idea of "base and superstructure."
- His term refers to the idea that a society's economic character forms its **base** or **infrastructure,** upon which rests the culture and social institutions, the superstructure.
- Marx viewed the economic system as society's infrastructure or base (*infra* is Latin, meaning "below").
- For Marx, it is the base/infrastructure (economy) that determines what a society will be like. The infrastructure of a society is formed by *forces of production* and *social relationships of production*
- Other social institutions, including the family, the political system, and religion, are built on this foundation (base/infrastructure); they form society's **superstructure** and support the economy. For example, under capitalism, the legal system protects capitalists' wealth, and the family allows capitalists to pass their property from one generation to the next
- Economically, he saw class conflict existing between the bourgeoisie or capitalists and the proletariat.
- **class conflict** is Marx's term for the struggle between capitalists and workers
- **Bourgeoisie** or **capitalists** are those who own the capital, land, factories, and machines(means of production)
- **Proletariat** are the exploited workers, who do not own the means of production
- **Means of production** – the method of producing the things people need to survive.
- In Marx's words, "Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other—Bourgeoisie and Proletariat" (Marx and Engels 1848).
- According to Marx society is constructed from classes
- A conflict analysis rejects the idea that social structure promotes the operation of society as a whole, focusing instead on how social patterns benefit some people while hurting others.
- Social institutions like government, education, and religion reflect this competition in their inherent inequalities and help maintain the unequal social structure.
- Some individuals and organizations are able to obtain and keep more resources than others, and these "winners" use their power and influence to maintain social institutions

How does society function?

- In Marx's view it operates mainly through class conflict(class struggle)
- It is people's relation to the means of production that determines which class they are in
- The most powerful class is that which own the means of production (land, labor, capital)
- The least powerful (proletariat) sell their labor in order to make a living to the Bourgeoisie where they are exploited through increasing surplus value:
  - Extending working days
  - Reducing wages
  - Introducing labor-saving technology
  - Developing the employer's business and not developing their lives e.g builders who spend their lives building houses for the industrialists' business but may never be able to own one themselves**.**
- Marx described modern society in terms of alienation
- **Alienation** refers to the condition in which the individual is isolated and divorced from his or her society, work, or the sense of self. Marx defined four specific types of alienation:
  - **Alienation from the product of one's labor**- An industrial worker does not have the opportunity to relate to the product he labors on e.g a worker on a Ford assembly line may spend all day installing windows on car doors without ever seeing the rest of the car.
  - **Alienation from the process of one's labor**- A worker does not control the conditions of her job because she does not own the means of production. There is no room for creativity or change **.**Everything is decided by the bourgeoisie who then dictate orders to the laborers.
  - **Alienation from others**-Workers compete, rather than cooperate ,setting each person apart from everyone else and offering little chance for companionship
  - **Alienation from one's self**-A final outcome of industrialization is a loss of connectivity between a worker and her occupation. Because there is nothing that ties a worker to her labor, there is no longer a sense of self.
  - Another idea that Marx developed is the concept of false consciousness.
  - **False consciousness** is a condition in which the beliefs, ideals, or ideology of a person are not in the person's own best interest. In fact, it is the ideology of the dominant class (here, the bourgeoisie capitalists) that is imposed upon the proletariat. For example ideas such as the emphasis of competition over cooperation clearly benefit the owners of industry
  - **Ideology** is a distortion of reality, a false picture of society
  - Most people, in fact, regard the right to own private property or pass it on to their children as "natural." In the same way, many of us tend to see rich people as having "earned" their money through long years of schooling and hard work; we see the poor, on the other hand, as lacking skills and the personal drive to make more of themselves. Marx rejected this type of thinking, calling it false consciousness
  - In order for society to overcome false consciousness, Marx proposed that it be replaced with class consciousness
  - **Class consciousness** is the awareness of one's rank in society. The proletariat will become revolutionary and overthrow the exploitative bourgeoisie

- Instead of existing as a "class in itself," the proletariat must become a "class for itself" in order to produce social change (Marx and Engels 1848), meaning that instead of just being an inert strata of society, the class could become an advocate for social improvements.
- Only once society entered this state of political consciousness would it be ready for a social revolution.

Why are some groups in society more powerful than others?

- For Marx some classes are more powerful than others because they own more property and wealth hence they defend what they hold
- Unlike functionalists, Marx did not see this as inevitable(unavoidable) and necessary
- He believed socialism could achieve a more equal sharing of power ,property and wealth

What causes social change?

- It occurs as a result of class conflict. The progression from **capitalism** to **communism** or **socialism** is inevitable.
- For Marx, the most important changes were bound up with the development of capitalism (Giddens, 2009)
- **Capitalism** is a way of organizing an economy so that the things that are used to make and transport products (such as land, oil, factories, ships, etc.) are owned by individual people and companies rather than by the government, as the "dictatorship of the bourgeoisie."
- Marx maintained that by its very nature, capitalism involves the *exploitation* and *oppression* of the worker
- He believed that the new industrial working class would be the class that brought about this change, taking over the means of production from the bourgeoisie.
- Sometimes societies change at a slow, evolutionary rate. But they may erupt in rapid, revolutionary change.
- No new classes would be formed in their wake, so the result would eventually be a classless (socialist or communist) society.
- The final epoch of history, the communist or socialist society that Marx believed would eventually supplant capitalism(Haralambos and Holborn 5th ed)
- **Communism** is a system in which people commonly own and equally share food and other things they produce. It is characterized by:
    - Ownership of the means of production will be collective rather than individual
    - Members of the society will share the wealth that labor produces
    - No social group will exploit and oppress another
    - There will be infrastructure without contradiction and conflict

Is society in conflict or orderly balance?

- Marx recognized however that periods of social order and equilibrium can occur in which class conflict is temporarily submerged
- He argued that such periods benefit the rich and powerful more than others

Individual and society

- Some Marxists tends to see the individuals as powerless to affect his own life or that of others
- They regard class conflict and socialist revolution as inevitable regardless of what any single individual may do

Criticism of the conflict perspective

- Just as structural functionalism was criticized for focusing too much on the stability of societies, conflict theory has been criticized because it tends to focus on conflict to the exclusion of recognizing stability.
- Conflict does not only occur between the two classes but even within the classes, basing on sex, race, ethnicity and religion
- Marx ignores women and did not analyze the position of women in society Feminists argue that under capitalism women suffer more than men as they are also exploited by men.

Summary of functionalism and Marxism

- They offer a general explanation of the society as a whole hence are macro-theories
- They regard society as a system hence they are sometimes called system theories
- They tend to see human behavior as shaped by the system- Parsons views behavior as directed by norms and values (value consensus) of the system. Marxists view behavior as determined by the economic infrastructure (economy) ……*further research*

3. Symbolic interactionist theory

- Interactionists :
  - George Herbert Mead
  - Herbert Blumer
  - Erving Goffman
  - Fred Davis
  - Charles Horton Cooley
  - George Homans
  - Peter Blau
- **Symbolic interactionism** is a micro-level theory that focuses on the relationships among individuals within a society.
- Henslin (2012) defines symbolic interactionism as a theoretical perspective in which society is viewed as composed of **symbols** that people use to establish **meaning**, develop their views of the world, and **communicate** with one another
- The central idea of interactionism is the idea that we discover ourselves during interaction with other people. In other words we understand ourselves better than when we have social intercourse with others
- Interactionism differs from macro theories in that it focuses on small-scale interaction rather than society as a whole
- It usually rejects the notion of a social system – it does not regard human action as a response or reaction to the system
- Theorists Herman and Reynolds (1994) note that this perspective sees people as being active in shaping the social world rather than simply being acted upon.

How society functions

- *George Herbert Mead (1863–1931*)-society operates through symbols, interaction, meanings and interpretation of meanings
- A **symbol** is something that stands for something else. For example, words that we use to refer to certain objects are in fact symbols which represent what we mean. The word 'spoon' is the symbol we use to describe the utensil that we use to eat soup (Giddens, 2009).
- Non-verbal gestures or forms of communication are also symbols. Waving at someone or making a rude gesture has symbolic value.
- **nonverbal communication,** can include many other gestures, facial expressions, and postures (Masuda et al. 2008)
- **Communication**—the exchange of meaning through language and symbols
- The central idea of symbolic interactionism is that symbols—things to which we attach meaning—are the key to understanding how we view the world and communicate with one another (Henslin 2012)
- Symbols in Everyday Life are important in this way:
  - It is symbols that define our relationships e.g without symbols we would have no aunts or uncles, employers or teachers—or even brothers and sisters.
  - There would still be reproduction, of course, but no symbols to tell us how we are related to whom.
  - We would not know to whom we owe respect and obligations, or from whom we can expect privileges—the essence of human relationships.
  - If you think of someone as your aunt or uncle, you behave one way, but if you think of that person as a boyfriend or girlfriend, you behave quite differently.
  - It is the symbol that tells you how you are related to others—and how you should act toward them.
  - Without symbols, we could not coordinate our actions with those of others. We could not make plans for a future day, time, and place. Unable to specify times, materials, sizes, or goals, we could not build bridges and highways. Without symbols, there would be no movies or musical instruments. We would have no hospitals, no government, and no religion.
  - On the positive side, there would be no war
- **Interaction**- as the name suggests, interactionism is concerned with **interaction** which means action between individuals
- Interaction comes through interpretation of meanings-action is meaningful to those involved
- An understanding of action requires an interpretation of the meanings that actors give to their activities e.g a man and a woman in a room and the man lights a candle, the action is open to a number of interpretations:
  - Power cut has occurred
  - Ritual performance
  - Birthday celebration
  - Intimate atmosphere for sexual encounter
- To understand the act, it is therefore necessary to discover meaning held by actors.
- Without interpretation of meanings there is no interaction

- Social interaction involves interpreting or giving meanings to each other's actions. If an individual behaves in a certain way and others respond or react, the individual will have an idea about how he can adjust to the needs of the society
- In order for the individual to understand his actions he must interpret or give meaning to other people's reactions.
- Interaction process leads to self-concepts
- **Self-concepts**- individuals develop pictures of themselves which have important influence on their actions
- The **self** is a distinct identity that sets us apart from others(Schaefer 2013)
- Mead claims that language allows us to become self-conscious beings - aware of our own individuality and able to see ourselves from the outside as others see us.
- He argued that how an individual comes to view himself or herself is based to a very large extent on interactions with others
- Mead called specific individuals that impacted a person's life-**significant others**, and he also conceptualized **"generalized others**" as the organized and generalized attitude of a social group.
- Mead divided the self into the 'I' and the 'Me'. The **'I'** is the active part of the self where as the **' Me'** is passive i.e the 'me' is that part that (significant and generalized) act upon
- The 'I' can control or direct the self not only to conform but to act independently. The 'I' gives the sense of freedom, of initiative
- Mead noted that the dynamic 'I' often dominates over the 'me' in highly creative people such as artists and brilliant sportsmen
- *Charles Horton Cooley (1864–1929)* used the phrase **looking-glass self** to emphasize that the self is the product of our social interactions.
- **looking-glass self** means a self-image based on how we think others see us
- The "Looking – glass self" concept maintains that the other people play the role of the mirror to us. In other words we evaluate our actions in terms of other people's reactions or responses to our actions.
- The looking-glass self contains three elements:
  - We imagine how we appear to those around us. For example, we may think that others perceive us as witty or dull
  - We interpret others' reactions. We come to conclusions about how others evaluate us. Do they like us for being witty? Do they dislike us for being dull?
  - We develop a self-concept. How we interpret others' reactions to us frames our feelings and ideas about ourselves. A favorable reflection in this social mirror leads to a positive self-concept; a negative reflection leads to a negative self-concept.
- *Erving Goffman (1922–1982),* presented the idea that a person is like an actor on a stage (dramaturgical analysis)
- **Dramaturgical analysis** or **dramaturgy** describes how we resemble actors on a stage as we play our various roles (Macionis 2012)
- Because it can be unclear what part a person may play in a given situation, he or she has to improvise his or her role as the situation unfolds (Goffman 1958)
- The **self** lies at the center of our performances. We have ideas of how we want others to think of us, and we use our roles in everyday life to communicate those ideas.

- Goffman called these efforts to manage the impressions that others receive of us impression management.
- **Impression management** are people's efforts to control the impressions that others receive of them
- Everyday life, said Goffman, involves playing our assigned roles. We have front stages on which to perform them
- **front stage** are places where we give performances
- We also have back stages, places where we can retreat and let our hair down. When you close the bathroom or bedroom door for privacy, for example, you are entering a back stage
- **back stage** are places where people rest from their performances, discuss their presentations, and plan future performances
- It is impossible to look inside a person's head and study what role they are playing. All we can observe is behavior, or role performance.
- **Role performance** is how a person expresses his or her role.

Criticism of interactionism

- Interactionism fails to look at the wider structural factors that create the context in which the interaction takes place. Assumes that interaction takes place in a vacuum.
- It fails to explain the origins of meanings that people place upon actions.
- It ignores the idea of power and class domination. Liberty, freedom and individuality are a myth.

Relationship between sociological theories and other social sciences

- **Psychology and interactionism**- Psychologists have shared the interest of Cooley, Mead, and other sociologists in the development of the self.
- Psychologist Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) believed that the self is a social product, and that aspects of one's personality are influenced by other people (especially one's parents).
- Psychologists such as Jean Piaget have emphasized the stages through which human beings progress as the self develops and social interaction is the key to this development
- **Marxism and History**-Marxism had great influence on the history of the world. It inspired the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia (1917) under the leadership of Lenin.
- *The Communist Manifesto* of Karl Marx became one of the principal guidelines for the European socialist and communist parties in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
- **Marxism and economics**- base and superstructure relationships also affect demand and supply relationship. If the base (economy) is not performing well demand might increase for certain under supplied products like bread which might affect other superstructure institutions like the family
- **Functionalism and economics**- when there is social or dynamic equilibrium and value consensus the economy and other institutions will be in a healthy state. The goals of various institutions become uniform e.g productivity (economic system focuses mass production-education system is partly concerned with producing skills to expand production-The family system rise a demand in consumer durables like TVs-the political system is partly concerned with raising productivity through government policy initiatives)

4. Conflict Theory-Feminism

- While feminism is difficult to define, **Feminism** is a theory that men and women should be equal politically, economically and socially
- Macionis (1997) defines Feminism as support of social equality for women and men
- A **feminist** is one who believes in that men and women should be equal politically, economically and socially
- There are several different versions of feminism but most share a number of features in common.
- Early feminists divided themselves up into liberal, radical or socialist camps, depending on their political points of view
- It generally means advocating on behalf of women taking gender as a central category of analysis. This is the core of all feminism theories
- Feminists have criticized all three of the traditionally dominant theoretical perspectives-functionalism, symbolic interactionism and conflict theory – as biased toward male points of view
- They argue that sociology has neglected women. Certainly until the 1970s sociology was largely written by men about men (Haralambos and Holborn 5th ed)
- A number of feminists criticize what they call male stream sociology meaning mainstream male dominated sociology

How the society operate

- Like Marxists, feminists tend to see society as divided into different social groups
- However unlike Marxists they tend to see the major division as being between men and women rather than between different classes
- Like Marxists also they tend to see society as characterized by exploitation
- However unlike Marxists, they see the exploitation of women by men as the most important source of exploitation, rather than that of the working class by the ruling class
- Just as Marx examined conflict between capitalists and workers, many feminists analyze conflict between men and women. A primary focus is the historical, contemporary, and global inequalities of men and women—and how the traditional dominance by men can be overcome to bring about equality of the sexes i.e egalitarian
- **Egalitarian** is where authority is more or less equally divided between people or groups (in marriage, for example, between husband and wife)
- Many feminists characterize contemporary societies as patriarchal i.e they are dominated by men.
- **Patriarchy** is a society in which men as a group dominate women as a group; authority is vested in males. For instance feminists have argued that:
  - men have most of the power in families (men are usually considered "head of the household")
  - they tend to be employed in better-paid and higher status jobs than women
  - they tend to monopolize positions of political power
- They argue that women are seen to be exploited because they undertake free labour for men by carrying out childcare and housework (Haralambos & Holborn 1994: 534).
- **Radical Feminism's view on the society**:
  - There is no basic order in the society and it support an end to the family system.
  - women can improve their social standing collectively, by working to eliminate gender itself

- This category blames the exploitation of women on men and that patriarchal system based on the family.
- Radical feminists often concentrate on the family as one of the primary sources of women's oppression in society.
- It argue that men exploit women by relying on the free domestic labour that women provide in the home
- As a group, men also deny women access to positions of power and influence in society.
- Shulamith Firestone (1971), an early radical feminist writer, argues that men control women's roles in reproduction and childrearing. Because women are biologically able to give birth to children, they become dependent materially on men for protection and livelihood.
- Firestone speaks of a 'sex class' to describe women's social position and argues that women can be emancipated only through the abolition of the family and the power relations which characterize it.
- Other radical feminists point to male violence against women as central to male supremacy. According to such a view, domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment and pornography are all part of the systematic oppression of women
- Popular conceptions of beauty and sexuality are imposed by men on women in order to produce a certain type of femininity. For example, social and cultural norms that emphasize a slim body and a caring. nurturing attitude towards men help to perpetuate women's subordination
- The 'objectification' of women through the media, fashion and advertising turns women into sexual objects whose main role is to please and entertain men.
- In the case men are the ruling class and women are the subjects, hence women must liberate themselves by overthrowing patriarchal society.
- Some radical feminist theorists, however, view the oppression of women as inevitable in all male-dominated societies, whether capitalist, socialist, or communist.

Criticism of radical feminism

- It ignores the important influence that race, class or ethnicity may have on the nature of women's subordination
- it is not possible to see patriarchy as a universal phenomenon; doing so risk biological reductionism - attributing all the complexities of gender inequality to a simple distinction between men and women.

➢ **Liberal Feminism's view on the society:**

- It accepts there is basic order in the society and seek change only to ensure equality of opportunity between men and women
- Women can improve their social standing individually, according to personal ability and effort.
- Given their belief in the rights of individuals, liberal feminists think that women should advance according to their own efforts, rather than by working collectively for change
- Advocates for the equalization of the sexes through the adjustments of inequalities.
- The creation of equal opportunities for both men and women will eventually lead to equality.
- Unlike radical and socialist feminists, liberal feminists do not see women's subordination as part of a larger system or structure.

- Instead, they draw attention to many separate factors which contribute to inequalities between men and women. For example in recent decades liberal feminists have campaigned against sexism and discrimination against women in the workplace, educational institutions and the media.
- They tend to focus their energies on establishing and protecting equal opportunities for women through legislation and other democratic means
- Liberal feminists also support reproductive freedom for all women. They respect the family as a social institution but seek changes, including more widely available maternity and paternity leave and child care for parents who work.
- In this respect, they are more moderate in their aims and methods than many radical and socialist feminists, who call for an overthrow of the existing system.

Criticism of liberal feminism

- They are unsuccessful in dealing with the root causes of gender inequality and do not acknowledge the systemic nature of women's oppression in society.
- Radical feminists accuse liberal feminists of encouraging women to accept an unequal society and its competitive character.

➢ **Socialist and Marxist Feminism:**

- There is no basic order in the society and Socialist feminism supports an end to social classes and to family gender roles that encourage "domestic slavery".
- women can improve their social standing collectively, through socialist revolution
- This blames women oppression in the differential ownership of the means of production between men and women.
- Socialist feminism has been critical of liberal feminism for its perceived inability to see that there are powerful interests in society hostile to equality for women (Bryson 1993).
- capitalism relies on women to labour for free in the home, caring and cleaning
- Capitalism exploited men by paying low wages and women by paying no wages.
- Fredrick Engels argued that capitalism intensifies patriarchy - men's domination over women - by concentrating wealth and power in the hands of a small number of men.
- For the capitalist economy to succeed, it must define people - in particular women - as consumers, persuading them that their needs will only be met through ever-increasing consumption of goods and products.
- They have called for the restructuring of the family, the end of 'domestic slavery' and the introduction of some collective means of carrying out childrearing, caring and household maintenance.
- Following Marx, many argued that these ends would be achieved through a socialist revolution, which would produce true equality under a state-centred economy designed to meet the needs of all.

➢ **Feminism and social institutions**

- Family is male dominated and oppresses women. It promotes domestic slavery
- Workplaces are male dominated. They sometimes promote sexual harassment to gain favors. Men are promoted more than women
- The law gives maternity leave to women and no paternity leave to men leaving childrearing an obligation of women only
- Education-all knowledge is male dominated and male biased

- ❖ Economy opens more opportunities to men than women. It supports capitalism which works to promote patriarchy
- ❖ The media is also male biased and dominated.The 'objectification' of women through the media, fashion and advertising turns women into sexual objects whose main role is to please and entertain men.

Macro and Micro levels of analysis (Macrosociology and Microsociology)

- **Macro-level analysis** an examination of large-scale patterns of society
- **Macrosociology analysis** of social life is that which focuses on broad features of society, such as social class and the relationships of groups to one another; usually used by functionalists and conflict theorists (Henslin 2012)
- Giddens (2009) defines Macrosociology as the study of large-scale groups, organizations or social systems.
- **Micro-level analysis** an examination of small-scale patterns of society
- **Microsociology analysis** of social life is that which focuses on social interaction; typically used by symbolic interactionists (Henslin 2012)
- Giddens (2009) defines Microsociology as the study of human behaviour in contexts of face-ta-face interaction.
- Functionalists and conflict theorists focus on the macro level; that is, they examine large scale patterns of society
- In contrast, symbolic interactionists usually focus on the micro level, on social interaction—what people do when they are in one another's presence.
- For example to study homeless people, symbolic interactionists would focus on the micro level. They would analyze what homeless people do when they are in shelters and on the streets.
- They would also analyze their communications, both their talk and their nonverbal interaction (gestures, silence, use of space, and so on).
- This micro level, however, would not interest functionalists and conflict theorists. They would focus instead on the macro level.
- Functionalists would examine how changes in the parts of society have increased homelessness. They might look at how changes in the family (fewer children, more divorce) and economic conditions (inflation, fewer unskilled jobs, loss of jobs to workers overseas) cause homelessness among people who are unable to find jobs and who have no family to fall back on.
- For their part, conflict theorists would stress the struggle between social classes. They would be especially interested in how decisions by international elites on global production and trade affect the local job market, and along with it unemployment and homelessness

Summary of the three Theoretical Perspectives in Sociology

Perspective/Paradigm /theory/approach	**Level of Analysis**	**Focus of Analysis**	**Key Terms**
1. Functional Analysis (also called functionalism and structural functionalism)	Macro sociological: examines large-scale patterns of society	Relationships among the parts of society; how these parts are functional (have beneficial consequences) or dysfunctional (have negative consequences)	➢ Structure ➢ Functions (manifest and latent) ➢ Dysfunctions ➢ Equilibrium ➢ social order ➢ Consensus
2. Conflict Theory	Macro sociological: examines large-scale patterns of society	The struggle for scarce resources by groups in a society; how the elites use their power to control the weaker groups	➢ Inequality ➢ Power(coercion and authority) ➢ Conflict ➢ Competition ➢ Exploitation ➢ Capitalism and communism ➢ Stratification
3. Symbolic Interactionism	Micro sociological: examines small-scale patterns of social interaction	Face-to-face/One-to-one interaction, how people use symbols to create meaning and interpret meaning in social life	➢ Symbols ➢ Interaction ➢ Meanings ➢ Definitions(interpretation) ➢ Nonverbal communication

TOPIC 2: SOCIALISATION

- **Socialization** is the process by which individuals learn the ways of society (or of particular groups). It also the process by which people learn the characteristics of their group—the knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, norms, and actions thought appropriate for them (Henslin 2012)
- Haralambos and Holborn (5th ed) defines socialization as the process by which individuals learn the culture of their society
- Sociologists use the term socialization to refer to the lifelong social experience by which people develop their human potential and learn culture (Macionis 2012)
- Social experience is also the foundation of personality
- **Personality** is a person's fairly consistent patterns of acting, thinking, and feeling. We build a personality by internalizing—taking in—our surroundings
- Socialization is what sociologists have in mind when they say "Society makes us human."
- Socialization is not the same as socializing (interacting with others, like family, friends, and coworkers); to be precise, it is a sociological process that occurs through socializing

Why Socialization Matters

- Contributes to development of personality-in the absence of groups or society, no man can develop a personality of his own
- Fosters unhu/Ubuntu/vumunhu-one becomes disciplined, respecting others
- Contributes to social order and equilibrium
- It is through teaching culture to new members that a society perpetuates itself. If new generations of a society don't learn its way of life, it ceases to exist
- To function successfully in society, we have to learn the basics of both material and nonmaterial culture, everything from how to dress ourselves to what's suitable attire for a specific occasion; from when we sleep to what we sleep on; and from what's considered appropriate to eat for dinner to how to use the stove to prepare it.
- Social interaction provides the means via which we gradually become able to see ourselves through the eyes of others, and how we learn who we are and how we fit into the world around us
- We have to learn language—whether it's the dominant language or one common in a subculture, whether it's verbal or through signs—in order to communicate and to think.

The goals of socialisation

From the point of view of society, socialisation has specific goals.

- It teaches the basics of life in the society.
- It transmits skills important for survival in the society.
- It instills in the new members of society a desire to work toward some goals that the society considers important.
- It teaches members how to fulfill social roles (If many people do so then society continues to exist)
- It provides each individual with or her identity, for people need to know who they are so that they may act accordingly

The process of Socialization

- **Primary socialization** or basic socialization involves "learning the rules of behavior, norms and values that can be treated at early ages and that is informational and emotional baggage of any person"
  - It is essential for harmonious physical and mental development of the child and is satisfied generally by the family (parents)
  - By responding to the approval and disapproval of its parents and copying their example, the child learns the language and many of the basic behavior patterns of its society
  - There is also a significant contribution of mother in Setting verbal function and in setting verbal function of the child the language develops through imitation
  - In a UNICEF study are shown some differences between the mother and father's actions on the child:
    - Fathers tend to play with children and mothers tend to care.
    - Fathers encourages competition, mothers encourage equity
    - Mothers tend toward caution while fathers often encourage children to try, test things.
- **Secondary socialization** refers to the period in which a child begins to interact strongly with other social environments than the family. E.g entering a new profession or relocating to a new environment or society
  - It continues throughout the entire life of the individual, with the purposeful creation and strengthening of personality
  - This type of socialization takes place within educational institutions and professional or formal structures of various groups
  - Secondary socialization takes place outside the home
- **Status socialization**-the individual is exposed to a broad pattern of socialization designed to prepare the individual to occupy a generalized status in life. This socialization involves basically the learning of the ways of life of the family and the community, including religious observances and initiation ceremonies
- **Role socialization**- the individual is prepared for a specific vocation or function in society. In simple societies children learn the profession of their family and community
- **Natural or unconscious socialization –** infants and youngsters explore, play and discover the social world around them. Behavior, attitudes and values but are picked up unconsciously from overhead conversations or observed actions of adults.
  - Behaviors picked up unconsciously and attitudes and values, are usually much more difficult to shed or cast off.
- **Planned or conscious socialization**- occurs when other people take actions designed to teach or train others
  - On a conscious level children are deliberately taught certain behaviour, attitudes and values
- **Positive socialization (concurring) -** is the process that leads to a certain kind of conformism of the person in the group to which it belongs and / or the sociaty, ie conformance of the individual to the expectations and requirements of the group or in general of the society.
  - This is called "positive-normal socialization" because it is carried out according to the social normative model.

- ❖ Positive socialization brings more happiness and optimism to an individual especially when one learns useful information that helps him cope well with the challenges of life

- **Negative or discordant socialization** occurs when others use punishment, harsh criticism or anger to try to "teach us a lesson"
  - ❖ A high ratio of negative to positive socialization can make a person unhappy, defeated or pessimistic about life
- **Anticipatory socialization** refers the way we prepare for future life roles
  - ❖ Examples would include a couple who cohabitate before marriage or soon-to-be parents who read infant care books and prepare their home for the new arrival. As part of anticipatory socialization, adults who are financially able begin planning for their retirement, saving money, and looking into future healthcare options.
  - ❖ The transition into any new life role, despite the social structure that supports it, can be difficult.
- **Resocialization** is the process by which old behaviors are removed (desocialization) and new behaviors are learned in their place. Old behaviors that were helpful in a previous role are removed because they are no longer of use. This can also take place after divorce or death of a spouse or child happens
  - ❖ Resocialization is necessary when a person moves to a senior care center, goes to boarding school, or serves time in jail. In the new environment-total instutions, the old rules no longer apply.
  - ❖ **Total institution**, a setting in which people are isolated from the rest of society and manipulated by an administrative staff e.g prison or mental hospital
  - ❖ A person entering a total institution is greeted with a degradation ceremony (Garfinkel 1956)
  - ❖ **Degradation ceremony** a ritual whose goal is to strip away someone's position (social status); in doing so, a new social and self-identity is stamped on the individual e.g through fingerprinting, photographing, or shaving the head.
  - ❖ Newcomers may be ordered to strip, undergo an examination (often in a humiliating, semipublic setting), and then put on a uniform that designates their new status
  - ❖ Officials also take away the individual's personal identity kit, items such as jewelry, hairstyles, clothing, and other body decorations used to express individuality
  - ❖ The process of resocialization is typically more stressful than normal socialization because people have to unlearn behaviors that have become customary to them.

- **Gender Socialization** the ways in which society sets children on different paths in life because they are male or female.
  - ❖ **Gender** are the behaviors and attitudes that a society considers proper for its males and females; masculinity or femininity
  - ❖ Gender stereotypes view masculine roles as usually associated with strength, aggression, and dominance, while feminine roles are usually associated with passivity, nurturing, and subordination
  - ❖ **Gender stereotyping** involves overgeneralizing about the attitudes, traits, or behavior patterns of women or men.

- ❖ Gender socialization occurs through four major agents of socialization: family, education, peer groups, and mass media. Exposure also occurs through secondary agents such as religion and the workplace
- ❖ **Gender role** are the behaviors and attitudes expected of people because they are female or male
- ❖ **Gender identity** is a person's deeply held internal perception of his or her gender.

➢ **Agents of socialization**- these are the transmitters of culture- the people, organisations and institutions that teach us how to thrive in our social world**.** Agents are mechanisms by which the self learns the values, beliefs and behaviors of the culture

- ❖ Micro socialization (social group) agents include the family and peer groups and other local groups
- ❖ Macro level (Institutional) agents include formal sources of learning-education, religion, politics, economics and health. Other informal sources of learning include media and books

<u>Micro socialization (social group) agents</u>

1. **Family**
   - ❖ Each family adopts division of labor regarding family tasks and prepares its young for the notion of work. In the rural areas the division is more pronounced. Boys are commonly cattle herders and girls attached to the home chores like cooking, fetching water and firewood-*gender role socialization*
   - ❖ A working class father since he has less autonomy and satisfaction in the work institution, he tends to be authoritarian and severe towards his family members, especially his sons. Therefore the occupational role of the father has an effect on the socialization orientations of the children-*negative socialization*
   - ❖ Researches have pointed out that middle-class parents are likely to instill achievement-oriented values in their children than working class parents
   - ❖ Poor families usually emphasize obedience and conformity when raising their children, while wealthy families emphasize judgment and creativity (National Opinion Research Center 2008).-*natural socialization*
   - ❖ This may occur because working-class parents have less education and more repetitive-task jobs for which it is helpful to be able to follow rules and conform. Wealthy parents tend to have better educations and often work in managerial positions or careers that require creative problem solving, so they teach their children behaviors that are beneficial in these positions.
   - ❖ This means children are effectively socialized and raised to take the types of jobs their parents already have, thus reproducing the class system (Kohn 1977) -*role socialization*
   - ❖ In the family girls are encouraged to be sweet, sociable while boys are encouraged to be physical.
   - ❖ On the basis of our sex, children are given different kinds of toys. Boys are more likely to get guns and "action figures" that destroy enemies. Girls are more likely to get dolls and jewelry.
   - ❖ Parents also subtly encourage boys to participate in more rough-and-tumble play. They expect their sons to get dirtier and to be more defiant, their daughters to be daintier and more compliant (Henslin 2007)

2. **Peer Groups**
   - **Peer group** is a group of individuals of roughly the same age who are linked by common interests
   - Unlike the family and the school, the peer group lets children escape the direct supervision of adults. Among their peers, children learn how to form relationships on their own
   - Peer groups provide their own opportunities for socialization since kids usually engage in different types of activities with their peers than they do with their families such as clothing and popular music.
   - Peer groups provide adolescents' first major socialization experience outside the realm of their families. Girls and boys teach one another what it means to be a female or a male, e.g for girls discussions to do with attractiveness whereas boys discuss more of dating many girls.-*P+/N- socialization*

Macro level (Institutional) agents

3. **School**
   - **School** refer to a whole range of formal education institutions which are the characteristics of the contemporary societies
   - School provide **manifest function**, or intended purpose, of formal education which is to teach knowledge and skills, such as reading, writing, and arithmetic. Scripture union in Zimbabwe schools has accorded much success stories in behavior modeling and instilling Christian values among teens-*planned socialization*
   - The teaching of such skills is certainly part of socialization, but so are the schools' **latent functions**, their unintended consequences that help the social system. Social control as exercised by the school benefit the family and other institutions
   - **The hidden curriculum** prepares children for the adult world. Hidden curriculum is the informal teaching done by schools e.g price giving encourages hard work. Also when children are required to work together on a project, they practice teamwork with other people in cooperative situations
   - Schools also socialize children by teaching them about citizenship and national pride e.g the singing of national anthem, reciting the schools national pledge
4. **Mass Media**
   - **Mass media** are forms of communication, such as radio, newspapers, television, and blogs that are directed to mass audiences
   - Mass media has influenced gender socialization for example most female characters in Advertisements are concerned with domestic things like washing powder or food that will help to care for their families or with things like clothes and cosmetics.
   - Mass media serves as another significant agent of gender socialization. In television and movies, women tend to have less significant roles and are often portrayed as wives or mothers. When women are given a lead role, it often falls into one of two extremes: a wholesome, saint-like figure or a malevolent, hypersexual figure (Etaugh and Bridges 2003).

- ❖ The children may model their behavior on the examples they are exposed through the mass media and their attitudes are often influenced in the same way e.g Ubuntu/unhu debate in Zimbabwe
- ❖ The violent materials in video game films and TV programmes have directly produced tendencies of violence in those who watch them.

5. **Government**
   - ❖ Government regulations stipulate the ages at which a person may drive a car, drink alcohol, vote in elections, marry without parental permission, work overtime, and retire.
   - ❖ In Zimbabwe to be defined as an "adult" usually means being eighteen years old, the age at which a person becomes legally responsible for him- or herself.
   - ❖ Each time people embark on this new category they must be socialized into a new role. e.g at 18 years one is expected to be socialized for marriage related issues
6. **Religion**
   - ❖ Religious organizations stipulate certain traditional rites that may bring together all the members of an extended family, even if they never meet for any other reason. e.g bira in indigenous religion of Zimbabwe
   - ❖ In Zimbabwe both Christianity and Indigenous Religion have been seen as agents of socialization as their values are all moving towards creating humanness (*unhu*) which is a *positive socialization* stance.
   - ❖ Respect, loyalty and humbleness (*kuzvininipisa* in shona, *kulibombwa* in Tonga) are religious values that create a human being. For instance, a good Muslim must perform prayers five times a day, a Christian must attend church on Sundays
7. **The Workplace**
   - ❖ The more one participate in a line of work, the more the work becomes a part of his self-concept.
   - ❖ Eventually one come to think of himself so much in terms of the job that if someone asks him to describe himself, one is likely to include the job in his self-description. One might say, "I'm a teacher," "I'm a nurse," or "I'm a sociologist."
   - ❖ From the people we rub shoulders with at work, we learn not only a set of skills but also perspectives on the world.

8. **The caste and tribe factor**
   - ❖ Some certain values, norms and behavior patterns that are common to most villages or small towns are socialized to individuals e.g Nyao dance (zvigure) in small towns like Banket area, Norton
   - ❖ In villages there are castes with subcultures which also socialize individuals in line with those subcultures e.g on language upper castes speak more refined language than spoken by lower castes
   - ❖ Tribes like the BaTonga in Binga Zimbabwe emphasize much on respect (lulemeko) loyalty (lutembeko) and submissiveness (kulibombya) which usually make them distinct to other tribes in the country
   - ❖ Some people of this tribe have distinct ways of decorating their bodies which is continuously socialized within that society e.g nose piercing

How the process of socialization promotes Unhu/Ubuntu/Vumunhu

- Unhu is an African philosophy which entails that one is human through other people. A human being cannot exist as a human being in isolation but rather is interconnected with others
- Primary socialization through the family enables children to have *respect* for the elders in the society. This promotes *dignity* among the elderly
- The family through division of labor groom children to be *responsible* citizens. It grooms girl children to be responsible mothers by concentrating them to domestic sphere a characteristic of the shona culture. Boy children spend most of the time doing outside home chores like cattle herding which make them appreciate the value of being responsible fathers who should work to fend the family
- The school through the hidden curriculum indirectly promote *cooperation*. The school encourages group work in class which upholds the value of working together among learners
- Some planned socialization processes at school via manifest functions promote *unity* within the society. The school make learners recite the schools national pledge which encourage learners to be united in their diversity for equality in the nation.
- At school teachers temporarily assume the role of parents in teaching norms and values of culture by applying the tactic of rewards and punishment e.g children who behave well are clapped hands for by the naughty ones. This promotes *hard work*
- Religion socializes people to be *available to others* in the society when need arises. Islamic religion emphasizes charity in one of its pillars i.e giving Zakat (Support of the Needy). Christianity also teaches concepts of helping those in need e.g there is more joy in giving than in receiving
- Unhu values of being *compassion* and *generous* are also promoted by the religious institution. Christianity values people who do not count what they give away. This supports the view that people do not live in isolation
- Holy communion in Christianity promote *oneness*, *sharing* and *love*
- *Respect* and *humbleness* are also emphasized in Christianity e.g honor your mother and your mother. Be humble and the lord will lift you up
- However some peer groups may socialize people in a negative way. Some people may influence each other to become unwilling to share e.g some money spinning peers
- The workplace may promote corruption among the people in society. People can become corrupt due to money temptations.

Factors that influence human behavior

Nature and Nurture debate (heredity versus environment/socialization debate)

- The "nature versus nurture" debate refers to whether differences in the behaviors of males and females are caused by inherited (biological) or learned (cultural) characteristics. Almost all sociologists take the side of nurture
- **Nature** is the influence of our genetic makeup on self-development
- **Nurture** is the role that our social environment plays in self-development

Nature proponents

- According to Harris (2009) and Winkler (1991) human behaviors are traced back to ancestry. Thus the genes that humans inherit from their forefathers are responsible for behaviors that they display
- For example a child can turn to be a criminal, an athlete or a boxer because it is in one's genes
- Men cannot care for children alone
- Women worry about looking good more than men

Nurture proponents (socialization)

- Sociobiologists believe that human behavior is derived from social intercourse with other individuals in society. This means that humans are what they are because of learning from others, either good or bad
- Thinkers like John Locke believed in what is known as *tabula rasa* which suggests that the mind begins as a blank slate. According to this notion, everything that we are and all of our knowledge is determined by our experience
- Psychological theorists like Albert Bandura through the *Bobo doll experiment*, Bandura demonstrated that children could learn aggressive behaviors by simply observing another person acting aggressively
- According to Mead(1934),infants and young children develop as social beings first by imitating the actions of those around them-*primary socialization* e.g a child may copy vulgar language as normal and acceptable behavior from family members
- According to Wado Ralf (1870:113) the family is a crucial instrument for the development of personality e.g like a building with faulty foundation, it will develop cracks same with behavior of a child whose family background is questionable, the child will falter in life
- Interactionist Herbert Mead(1934) in his *Role Taking Theory* argues that individuals do role-taking i.e imagine themselves in the position of that other e.g playing house(*mahumbwe*) children take roles of father, mother etc in which they imagine themselves in the shoes of some role models
- For Mead, role taking is a prerequisite for the development of the sense of self. Both our self and our mind are social products
- Goffman (1961) in his *Dramaturgical theory* he likened individual behavior to actors performing on stage. Human behavior does not remain fixed but is remolded through interaction with others
- Charles Horton Cooley (1902) in his *Looking glass self-theory* argues that the self grows out of perceptions of others, how others see others. As such human beings conform to how they think others think them to be

Nature and Nurture can interact to shape human behavior

- Some sociologists have however argued that both the genetic make-up of an individual and the societal influences are what constitute a human being
- Giddens (1989) asserted that the stages of human life are social as well as biological
- For example a person with Perfect pitch (ability detect pitch of musical tone without reference) might have genetically assumed that, but that is not enough to develop his ability. Instead musical training during early childhood is necessary to enhance the inherited ability

- Human behavior is not a matter of either nature or nurture, but of the two working together. Some behavior that sociologists usually assume to be due entirely to socialization is apparently influenced by biology

Theories of Socialization

1. **Symbolic Interactionism and socialization(self-theories)**

(a) *The looking-glass self* by Charles Horton Cooley (1864 – 1929)

- Our sense of self develops from interaction with others in so doing we continually modify the self. Each individual senses the opinions of others from their reactions to him or her.
- The looking-glass self contains three elements(***refer to previous notes***)
- The self, then, is never a finished product—it is always in process, even into our old age.

(b) *Role Taking theory* by George Herbert Mead

- As we play with others, we learn to take the role of the other. That is, we learn to put ourselves in someone else's shoes—to understand how someone else feels and thinks and to anticipate how that person will act
- As we develop this ability, at first we can take only the role of **significant others**. By assuming their roles during play e.g playing house(*mahumbwe*) we cultivate the ability to put ourselves in the place of significant others(parents,relatives).
- As our self gradually develops, we internalize the expectations of more and more people. Our ability to take the role of others eventually extends to being able to take the role of "the group as a whole." Mead used the term **generalized other** to refer to our perception of how people in general think of us
- The change from taking on the role of **significant others** to taking the role of the **generalized others** is complete when a child, in considering some action, no longer thinks, " Mothers says I must not do it," but rather, " It is not right to do it." At that point, the child has internalized or, made a part of herself, the folkways mores, values, and other norms of society, thereby acquiring a conscience.
- We go through three stages as we learn to take the role of the other:
  - **Imitation stage**- Under the age of 3, we can only mimic others without conscious awareness of the meaning of actions. We do not yet have a sense of self separate from others, and we can only imitate people's gestures and words.(This stage is actually not role taking, but it prepares us for it.)
  - **Play stage**- from the ages of about 3 to 6, we pretend to take the roles of specific people, the significant others e.g playing house(*mahumbwe*)
  - **Game stage**- organized play, or team games, begins roughly when we enter school. The significance for the self is that to play these games we must be able to take multiple roles or must have the attitude of all others involved in that game. The group as a whole becomes the 'generalized other'. When the child has taken the attitude of the other, he/she becomes a full member of society and thus, from a sociological perspective, to have a "self"
- Mead also said there were two parts of the self, the "I" and the "me."(refer to previous notes for more).

- The "I " is :
  - the self as subject
  - the active e.g "I shoved him,"
  - unique to each individual
  - creative part of the self

In contrast, the "me" is:

- the self as object
- Passive e.g "He shoved me."
- shared with others
- made up of attitudes we internalize from our interactions with others(significant and generalized)

- Mead stressed that we are not passive in the socialization process. Mead added that the "I" even monitors the "me," fine-tuning our ideas and attitudes to help us better meet what others expect of us.

2. Functionalism and socialization

- Socialization serves as the important function of:
- reinforcing the social structure e.g the family instills unhu values important for the education institution, whilst the education institution socializes punctuality value important for the work institution
- Maintaining societal order e.g primary socialization processes through family and education discourages deviance. Social control is implemented by these institutions
- Transmitting culture from one generation to the next. There will be value institutionalization(maintaining) and value orientation(transmission)
- Parsons stated that the main task of sociology is to examine 'the institutionalization of patterns of value orientation in the social system'
- Parsons viewed socialization as a functional prerequisite for survival of the social systems e.g it important for social institutions to function well (the society will not disintegrate due to moral decay)

3. Marxism and socialization

- Socialization is one of the most powerful and effective tools used by those in power to:
  - Maintain the status quo. For example upper class children are socialized for positions of authority and leadership roles whereas lower class children are socialized for positions to serve those higher on the social ladder
  - Legitimize existing social inequalities. Socialization is used by those rich to make people see that the rich people "earned" their money through long years of schooling and hard work; the poor, on the other hand, as lacking skills and the personal drive to make more of themselves.
  - Prepare people for class related roles that they will fulfill throughout their lives. For example lower class children are trained to show respect for those above them in social class whereas upper class children are socialized how to interact with members of same class

- ❖ Refine the separate worlds of social class. Children born to wealthy parents go to private schools, where they learn skills and values that match their higher position e.g Lomagundi, Peterhouse college .Children born to middle- and lower class parents go to public schools, which further refine the separate worlds of social class.

4. Feminism and socialization

- ❖ Family encourages girls to be conformist and obedient, with girls taking caregiving roles, doing the housework and women taking care of the children
- ❖ Boys are socialized into being sporty and competitive, while men do the DIY(Do it yourself) and are generally seen to be bringing in the main income and having most power and control in the family.
- ❖ Education make girls opt for 'female subjects' such as health and social care while boys tend to take 'male subjects' such as science and maths due to gender stereotyping. It also provide separate sports for girls (netball) and boys (rugby) making girls as takers of 'lighter' things in life
- ❖ The media generally portray women as being conformist, glamorous and sexualised, while men are portrayed as stereotypically masculine and tough, strong and powerful
- ❖ Religious ideas are traditionally patriarchal with women being unable to enter the positions at the top of the church and for example, women saying that they will obey their husbands in marriage.

The impact of lack of Socialization

Characteristics and effects of individuals who lack socialization

- ➢ **Poor self-esteem** due to poor body image. Elizabeth pointed out that people who were continuously isolated day in day out developed a poor body image
- ➢ **Depression** due to isolation and lack of interaction
- ➢ **Loss of reality** due to focusing on one aspect like movies, video games
- ➢ **Decreased ability to learn** due to brains which could have rewired and affect ability to solve puzzles and mind games
- ➢ **Decreased sense of empathy**-by not interacting with people, one may have a harder time processing feelings and love. Lack of *unhu* will result
- ➢ **Inflammation** as a result of stress and depression. One may experience bloating ,digestive issues or get sick
- ➢ **Shorter life span-**studies have shown social connections increase our longevity, while a lack of social connections increases our mortality
- ➢ **Reduced resilience**- healthy relationships "lead to the development of resilience, coping skills and higher self-esteem" Milios said .

TOPIC 3: FAMILY

Households and families

- A **family** is a group of persons directly linked by kin connections, the adult members of whom assume responsibility for caring for children (Giddens 2009)
- **Kinship** ties are connections between individuals established either through marriage or through the lines of descent that connect blood relatives (mothers, fathers, siblings, offspring, etc.).
- Henslin (2012) defines family as two or more people who consider themselves related by blood, marriage, or adoption
- Families are part of what are more broadly considered to be kinship systems.
- A **kinship system** is the pattern of relationships that defne people's relationships to one another within a family.
- Sociologists also refer to the **family of orientation** (the family in which an individual grows
- up) and the **family of procreation** (the family that is formed when a couple has its first child)
- A **household** is a group of people who live together regardless of whether there are any kinship ties
- A household is composed of one or more people who occupy a housing unit. Not all households contain families neither do all families contain households
- A **householder** is the person or of the people in whose name the home is owned, being bought or rented
- According to the US Census Bureau 2000 definition , family households consist of two or more individuals who are related by birth, marriage or adoption although they also may include other unrelated people
- There are two types of households:
  - **Family households**-consist people living with one or more individuals related
  - **Non family households**-consist of people who live alone or who share their residence with unrelated individuals

Family and household patterns

Functions and characteristics of family

- The family as a social institution, performs a number of important functions for the society.
  - **Sexual regulation** -marriage is the principle setting within which most sexual intercourse must occur hence in most cases sex outside marriage is prohibited. Therefore family regulates the satisfaction of sexual desires of its members
  - **Reproduction**- societies need to replace the old and those who die. Family ensure general replacement through child bearing and child rearing
  - **Socialization**-family is the primary agency of child socialization. Since children are born "blank slates" they need to be taught customs of the society
  - **Economqic support**- provides basic needs of life like food, shelter and clothing

- **Status placement**-children take the statuses of their parents soon after birth e.g religious and social classes of parents
- **Emotional support**-it offer emotional refuge to stress from work and hardships.
- **Protection-**an attack against a member is taken as one against the whole family. There is physical, economic and psychological protection

Changes in the functions of the family

- The function of the family has undergone considerate modification and changes through time, although its structure remained more or less unaltered
- Economically, for instance, there were times, when the family was a unit of both production and consumption because the family members contributed to the common pool of the family unit. The family has now become more of a unit of consumption. This is so because, as soon as children reach an age at which they are able to work they become what J.H. Abraham called **external producers.** They do not co-operate any longer with their parents to maintain a common livelihood by working at home.
- A number of writers have seen the decline of the family as a social institution. Some point to the role of the welfare state in taking – over the welfare and educational responsibilities from them, while other point to modern sexual permissiveness and the vandalism which is seen to characterize urban areas.
- Some institutions have taken over the role of the family
  - **Schools and day care centers** offer socialization and culture transmission. Parents live their children here when going to work
  - **Media** enhance socialization process through some life nurturing programs on television, HIV and AIDS awareness, dress codes
  - **Religion** also socialize children, offer social control and emotional support
  - **The state** offer education, economic support and social welfare
  - **Health-** free medical treatment for children

Example of the Zimbabwean Government efforts (social policies)

- The setting up of the Ministry of Health and Child welfare
- The rural child feeding schemes
- The establishing of the AIDS levy
- Homes for the elderly and the disabled which their families could have done

- This view was strongly opposed by Ronald Fletcher, who sees the family as an important functional institution. He stresses that the family is supported rather than replaced by the
  state, with the former now being able to concentrate on its prime task of child rearing. He
  argues that the family is still the basic economic unit, and that it has increased its significance in providing friendship and companionship for its members.
- Edward Shoeter in *The making of the modern family*, has argued those changing relations between parents and children have contributed to the family. Increased

prosperity and the loss of family' s economic function means that it is no longer necessary to stay married for economic reasons.

The impact of globalization on family and household patterns

- Globalization can be regarded as the compression of the world and intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole (Robertson, 1992). The world becomes like a global village through intensifications of worldwide social relations, removal of "artificial" barriers to the flow of goods, services and factors of production. It therefore affects families this way:

Positive impact

- Internet has also enhanced socialization process of the family and emotional support
- Increased family welfare due to cross boarder trading by parents. Many countries have removed Visa for easy movement across boarders
- Globalization has brought ideas equality between men and women to some extent hence reducing the dominion role of the father in the family

Negative impact

- Mobility of human capital leads to culture dilution of families
- Interaction through internet has led to break up of marriages e.g internet dating
- Global patterns of work and migration have created a new family form, the **transnational family**, defined as families where one parent (or both) lives and works in one country while his or her children remain in the country of origin (Andersen et al:2017)
- Issues of Children's rights at international level have led to abolition of corporal punishments in most countries hence increased juvenile delinquency

Changes in structure of the family

- **The nuclear family replacing the extended family:** according to Talcot Parsons, modern industrial society requires a small, mobile and self- sufficient family unit, capable of moving to where the specialized skills of the father can be best employed.
- **Family size is becoming smaller:** Certainly, the average British or Zimbabwe family size is now 1 to 3 children, as against 5 a century ago.
- **The family is less patriarchal and more democratic**: recent legislation on employment opportunities, greater equality of father and mother roles has attained this
- **The family is more fragile as an institution:** divorce cases increasing due to women rights and the increased democracy in families

Family types in Zimbabwe

- Structure or form of the family varies from one society to another

1. **Basing on organization**

a) **Nuclear family**

- Nuclear family, two adults living together with their own or adopted children in a household (Giddens 2009). Some scholars suggest the child (ren) can be unmarried.
- Nuclear family can be defined as a family consisting of a husband, wife, and child(ren) Henslin (2012)
- The size of the nuclear family is very small. It is free from the control of elders. The nuclear family is autonomous, with authority in their own circle and the emphasis on privacy of family.
- The nuclear family is based on conjugal bonds. Macionis (1997) is of the view that nuclear family is also called the **conjugal family** (conjugal means "based on marriage")
- The nuclear family is economically independent of the larger system of relations and is dependent for its economic sustenance on the male head or on the income of the parental couple.
- Parsons is of the view that nuclear family is functionally self- sufficient, with the father essential playing the instrumental role of earning money for the unit and the mother the expressive function of emotional concerns.
- However some of the nuclear family functions may be changed due to **dual career families** (both husband wife working) which may make it more valuable to have members of the extend family on hand to help look after children.
- Also loneliness can develop, a relative living close at hand can act as an important safety valve for marital tensions.

Challenges of nuclear family

- Lacks control and guidance of elders since they won't be staying with nuclear family members.
- Increased domestic violence due to lack respectable people within the family other than the couple and children.
- The nuclear family lacks significance relations with extended Kinship groups since it is extremely mobile to follow where the father is staying.
- Rebellious children who don't get enough counselling from grandparents

b) Extended/joint family

- According to Murdock, an extended family consists of two or more nuclear families affiliated through an extension of the parent child relationship… i.e by joining the nuclear family of a married adult to that of his parents
- An extended family may include grandparents, brothers and their wives, sisters and their husbands, aunts and nephews.
- This group is sometimes called the **consanguine family** because it includes everyone with "shared blood."
- The extended family may also be extended horizontally to include a group consisting of two or more brothers , their wives and children
- This horizontal extended family is called the **fraternal** or **collateral family**
- The father-son relationship (filial relationship) and the relationship between brothers (fraternal relationships) are more crucial for the joint family system than the conjugal relationship(husband-wife relationship)

- In Zimbabwe the extended family may be modified especially in urban centres, it consists of additional members whether relatives or colleagues and renders services to such additional members on a voluntary and moral basis.
- The modified extended family has an important function for people who migrate from the rural hinterland to the cities.
- The extended family also offers poor people a form of insurance against disasters. It helps other members physically survive in time of need for example when a spouse dies.

Challenges experienced by extended families

- So many dependents to be looked after
- Less privacy
- Differences in tastes e.g choice of food, entertainment which can create arguments
- Grandparents may withhold discipline for grandchildren resulting in them being spoilt

c) Single-Parent Family

- Circumstances that may cause single parenthood are:
  - When the marriage is legally dissolved by divorce
  - When the marriage is not legally dissolved but one parent leaves the family.
  - The death of one of the parents, whereby widowed families are created, that is, families with a widowed mother or father.
  - The father and mother are not married, that is where children are born out of wedlock
  - When one parent is serving a prison sentence.
  - When a father works as a migrant laborer
  - When the father is away from home our military service

Challenges experienced by single parent families

- Economic and emotional problems e.g Loneliness
- Problems associated with family relationships and multiple – role fulfillment
- Juvenile delinquency
- Problems emanating from contact with the previous spouse e.g on child responsibility

d) Step-family/ reconstituted/blended family

- The term **'step-family'** refers to a family in which at least one of the adults has children from a previous marriage or relationship. Sociologists often refer to such groups as reconstituted families.
- Both parents may have children from their previous relationships

Challenges of step family

- Older children may find it difficult to adapt to living with another family
- Jealousy may arise among children usually if they are of the same age
- Disciplining children become a confusion. Is it the birth parent or step parent?

- Legal issues over the step parent's children or former marriage may cause disharmony in the reconstituted family

e) Child headed family

- A family an elder child will be the leader of the family, Children will be staying alone without parents may be due to death of parents, divorcing or migration of parents.

Challenges of child headed family (https://www.newsday.co.zw/2011/05/2011-05-09-challenges-of-a -childheaded-family/amp/)

- School drop outs leading to children's shuttered dreams of a brighter future
- Basic needs challenges
- Lack of role models and nurturing
- Exploitation and abuse by other people -

2. Basing on marriage type

a) Monogamous family

- It consists of one husband and one wife at a given time
- The term **monogamy** describes a form of marriage in which one woman and one man are married only to each other
- In **serial monogamy**, a person may have several spouses in his or her lifetime, but only one spouse at a time(Schaefer 2013)

b) Polygamous family

- This is when one man marries several women or one woman marries several men and constitutes the family. **Polygamy** is the practice of men or women having multiple marriage partners. Polygamous marriages are divided into:
  - **Polygynous family**- when one man has more than one wife at a given time and lives with them and their children together e.g the Masowe sect members and the Ba Tonga in Zimbabwe. **Polygyny** is a form of marriage in which men have more than one wife
  - **Polyandrous family**-when one wife has more than one husband at a given time and lives with all of them together. **Polyandry** is a form of marriage in which women have more than one husband

Challenges of a polygamous family

- Conflict due to unfair distribution of resources
- Economic challenges due to failure to provide the family
- Encourages the spread of HIV/AIDS
- Social challenges like witchcraft accusations, jealousy

3. Basing on in-group and out-group affiliation

a) Endogamous family – it is the one which consists of husband and wife who belongs to same group such as caste or tribe. In Shona culture they say "*kuroorana wematongo*" meaning marrying among tribes. **Endogamy** is the practice of marrying someone within a group to which one belongs

b) **Exogamous family**- it is marriage between people from different groups. **Exogamy** means marriage with someone outside the group. In Ndebele culture they say "*induku enhle iganyulwa ezizweni*" meaning a beautiful wife is found from a far people. The best example of exogamy is the **incest taboo,** which prohibits sex and marriage among designated relatives.

4. **Basing on residence**

a) **Patrilocal family**- when the wife goes to live with the husband's family. E.g among the rural Shona people in Zimbabwe found in Masvingo.

b) **Matrilocal family**- when the couple after marriage moves to live with the wife's family. The husband has a secondary position in the wife's family where his children live. This has been practiced by the Mola people of Kariba in Zimbabwe

c) **Neolocal Residence**-when the couple after marriage moves to settle in an independent residence which is neither attached to the bride's family of origin nor bridegroom's family of origin. This is common in urban areas in Zimbabwe among cohabiting couples. **Cohabitation** is whereby adults will be living together in a sexual relationship without being married.

d) **Matri-Patri local family**- this is when immediately after marriage the bridegroom moves to the house of the bride and temporarily settles there till the birth of the first child and then comes back to his family of orientation, along with wife and child for permanent settlement. E.g among the Ndebele

5. **Basing on Authority**

a) **Patriarchal family**- whereby authority belongs to the paternal side. In this family, the eldest male or the father is the head of the family

b) **Matriarchal family**-whereby authority is centered on the wife or mother. This implies family is ruled by mother not by the father

6. **Basing on descent**

➢ **Descent** is the system by which members of a society trace kinship over generations

a) **Patrilineal family**-when descent is traced through the father. Family inheritance of property follows male of descent. This family is also patriarchal and patrilocal

b) **Matrilineal family**-descent is traced along the female line and inheritance of property also takes place along the female line of descent. Eg some Ba Tonga of Binga in Zimbabwe. Generally matrilineal families are matriarchal and matrilocal.

c) **Bilateral family**-when descent is traced through both father and mother. **Bilateral descent** is the tracing of kinship through both parents' ancestral lines while on the other hand, **unilateral descent** is the tracing of kinship through one parent only.

d) **Ambilineal family-** when's descent is traced through father's line in one generation but in the next generation one's son may trace his descent through mother's line. **Ambilineal descent** follows either the father's side only or the mother's side only, depending on the situation.

Patterns of marriage

➢ **Marriage** is a legal relationship, usually involving economic cooperation, sexual activity, and childbearing (Macionis 2012)

- Henslin (2012) defines marriage as a group's approved mating arrangements, usually marked by a ritual of some sort (the wedding) to indicate the couple's new public status.
- Other scholars define marriage as a legally recognized social contract between two people, traditionally based on a sexual relationship and implying a permanence of the union.
- Marriage might be through **endogamy.** Endogamy limits potential partners to people of the same age, race, religion, or social class. The reason for endogamy is that people of similar position pass along their standing to their offspring, maintaining the traditional social hierarchy.
- **Exogamy**, on the other hand, links communities and encourages the spread of culture.
- The act of entering into marriage while still married to another person is referred to as **bigamy**
- Marriage can also be through monogamy and polygamy. Monogamous marriages are the most common in the Zimbabwean society. It may be serial monogamy also
- Polygamy is divided into polygyny and polyandry. However polygamous families are no longer common unlike monogamous ones in the modern Zimbabwean society because:
  - The dominance of Christianity
  - The fear of HIV/AIDS
  - Women empowerment
  - Economic hardships
  - People admiring smaller families as opposed to larger families

Characteristics of a stable marriage

- **A deep commitment to marriage**-even in hard times couple in a stable marriage work together to correct problems. The couple don't let hard times destroy them. There is no cheating
- **Prioritizing family time**- stable marriage is characterized by a couple creating time for being together. The couple regardless of the work weeks and house hold chores prioritize time for their marriage
- **Plenty of constructive communication**- stable marriage is made of a couple which do not keep secrets from each. The couple always correct each other constructively not destructively
- **Appreciation within the marriage**- stable marriage has couple which always thank each for the little things they do to each. The "I love you" phrase is often said to each other in the marriage
- **Marriage couple look for each other not being selfish**- members sacrifice personal desires in order to encourage or support each other
- **Conflicts are resolved constructively and promptly**-when offenses occur in stable marriage, bad feelings are not allowed to fester. Conflicts are resolved quickly. There are good copying skills
- However some of the characteristics might still be found in unstable marriages:
  - Some unstable families may solve the conflicts promptly but they may be too frequent

Divorce

- **Divorce** is the legal dissolution of a marriage by a court or other competent body
- Davis (1993) defines divorce as "a legal or customary decree that a marriage is dissolved."

Causes of divorce

- Unfulfilled emotional needs e.g due to lack of affection
- Different attitudes towards gender roles. Some unfulfilled gender roles may cause divorce
- Diverse educational principles. Some men don't prefer their wives to get higher level of education than them
- Communication problems
- Absence of conflict solving strategies
- Strong professional engagement. Partners may neglect family duties due to too much concentration on their work

Ways of resolving divorce in Zimbabwe

- Firstly divorce can be avoided or prevented by:
  - Avoiding early marriages through putting minimum age limit for marriage
  - Marrying somebody one truly loves not through infatuations
  - Being open to each in marriage
  - Change of cultural attitudes which promote patriarchy
- In case members decide to divorce the following can be done:
  - Counselling services from churches, extended family members
  - Delaying court procedure for marriage termination e.g through imposing long period of time before final termination
  - Educating divorcing couple about the possible consequences of marriage termination
- However if members insist divorce the following ways can resolve the divorce process
  - Court procedure
  - Collaborative divorce-members can avoid the strenuous and expensive court procedures by agreeing term of divorce.
  - Mediation can be considered on best way to divorce without going to the court. A mediator can facilitate the process of divorce

Domestic violence

- **Domestic violence** can be regarded as, emotional, physical, or sexual abuse of one family member by another.
- Violence in the domestic sphere is usually perpetrated by males who are, or who have been, in positions of trust and intimacy and power- husbands, boyfriends, fathers, fathers-in-law, stepfathers, brothers etc
- Domestic violence is, in most cases, violence perpetrated by men against women
- Women can also be violent, but their actions account for a small percentage of domestic violence

Forms of domestic violence against girls

- Target of sex selective abortion when still in the womb
- Female infanticide in some cultures
- Incest and rape
- Genital mutilation
- Forced early marriage
- Selective education-boys preferred more

Forms of domestic violence against women

- Rape
- Battering
- Forced pregnancy
- Forced abortion
- Forced sterilization
- Limitation in social mobility

Cultural causes of domestic violence

- Beliefs in male superiority
- Values of prioritizing men over women and girls
- Marriage customs like bride price or dowry make women 'slaves'
- Gender specific socialization which promotes submissiveness in women and aggression in men

Economic causes of domestic violence

- Women's economic dependency on men
- Limited access to education by women
- Limited access to employment by women

Legal causes of domestic violence

- Low levels of legal literacy among women-women do not have legal related knowledge
- Discriminatory laws against women in terms of inheritance, property ownership and rights

Political causes of domestic violence

- Under-representation of women in power ,politics, media and in legal professions
- Notions of family being private to state interference

Effects of domestic violence

- Fatal outcomes
  - Homicide- killing somebody
  - Suicide
  - Maternal mortality- death of infant in mother's womb, still births
  - HIV/AIDS
- Non-fatal outcomes- physical health outcomes
  - Unwanted pregnancy
  - Gynecological problems
  - Miscarriage
  - Headaches
  - Permanent disabilities

- Mental health outcomes

- Depression
- Fear
- Anxiety
- Low self-esteem
- Sexual dysfunction
- Eating problems
- Post-traumatic stress

➢ General outcomes
- Divorce
- Fugitive children
- Lack of trust between partners
- Lack of love and affection

Domestic Violence Act [Chapter 5:16] Act No. 24 of 2006)

Offences of domestic violence

➢ physical abuse; sexual abuse; emotional, verbal and psychological abuse; economic abuse; intimidation; harassment; stalking; malicious damage to property;

Cultural or customary rites or practices that discriminate against or degrade women

➢ forced virginity testing;
➢ female genital mutilation;
➢ pledging of women or girls for purposes of appeasing spirits;
➢ forced marriage;
➢ child marriage;
➢ forced wife inheritance;
➢ sexual intercourse between fathers-in-law and newly married daughters-in-law

Government policies on domestic violence

➢ **police action-**creation of a section at every police station, staffed by at least one police officer with relevant expertise in domestic violence, victim friendly or other family-related matters
➢ **Criminalization of domestic violence**- A police officer shall arrest without warrant any person whom he or she reasonably suspects has committed or who is threatening to commit an act of domestic violence. police officers can take all reasonable steps to bring the person suspected of having committed or threatening to commit an act of domestic violence before a magistrate within forty-eight hours
➢ **granting of protection order to the victim of domestic violence**- which:
- direct the offender to stay away from any premises or place where the victim resides
- prohibit the offender from entering or approaching any place or premises where or at which the victim works, attends or frequents
- direct the offender to pay emergency monetary relief in respect of the victim's needs

- **Anti-domestic violence counsellors**- the panel of this counsel consist of social welfare officers or any officer involved in community work; members or employees of private voluntary organizations concerned with the welfare of victims of domestic violence; chiefs or headmen as defined in the Traditional Leaders Act [Chapter 29:17]. An anti-domestic violence counsellor have the following functions:
  - advising, counselling and mediating the solution of any problems in personal relationships that are likely to lead or have led to the use of domestic violence
  - carrying out investigations and making arrangements for the accommodation of the victim prior to the issue of an interim protection order or protection order
  - making immediate arrangements for the medical or other examination of a child where there is a reasonable suspicion that he or she is a victim

- **Anti-Domestic Violence Council**- The Council shall have the following functions:
  - to keep under constant review the problem of domestic violence in Zimbabwe
  - to promote research into the problem of domestic violence;
  - to monitor the application and enforcement of this Domestic violence Act and any other law relevant to issues of domestic violence;
  - submit annual reports to the Minister on issues related to domestic violence

Traditional ways of resolving family conflicts

- Separation of the couple for short period of time
- Arbitration by respectable family members
- Counselling
- Education on family related issues
- Use of traditional leaders like village heads in mediation

<u>Sociological perspectives on the family</u>

1. Functionalist perspective on Families

- The functionalist perspective sees society as a set of social institutions that perform specific functions to ensure *continuity* and *consensus*. According to this perspective, the family performs important tasks that contribute to *society's basic needs* and helps to perpetuate *social order*.
- When functionalists look at marriage and family, they examine how they are related to other parts of society, especially the ways that marriage and family contribute to the well-being of society
- When considering the role of family in society, functionalists uphold the notion that families are an important *social institution* and that they play a key role in *stabilizing society*. They also note that family members take on status roles in a marriage or family. The family—and its members—perform certain functions that facilitate the prosperity and development of society.

- For these reasons, the family is often called the "backbone of society."(Macionis 2012)
- However some functionalists noted the diminishment "break down" of family functions in the society due to social changes
- Functionalists would say that the diminishment of the family's functions produces further social disorganization because the family no longer carefully integrates its members into society. Such things as the high rate of divorce and the rising numbers of female-headed and single-parent households are the result of social disorganization.
- Sociologists like George Peter Murdock, Talcott Parsons, Ronald Fletcher and William F. Ogburn amongst others have written about the family and its functions in the society and for its members

a) George Murdock

- He pointed out that family preforms four basic functions for the individual and society at large:
  - **Sexual regulation function –**maintains stability in the society. The rules that limit sex within the marriage prevent disruption that would occur if everyone were allowed 'free play' of these emotions. Sexual regulation brings out the issue of incest taboo. Functionalists note that the incest taboo helps families to avoid *role confusion.* For example, if father–daughter incest were allowed, how should a wife treat her daughter—as a daughter, as a subservient second wife, or even as a rival?
  - **Reproductive function**- helps to reproduce society
  - **Economic Function- Division of labor** along gender lines, and **specialization**, leads to **cooperation** in the family. This fulfills the economic function, and provides 'rewarding experiences' for the spouses working together, 'which cements their union.....'
  - **Educational function** (socialization)-passes on the culture of the society as well as transmitting a society's way of life for society's equilibrium

b) Talcott Parsons

- According to the American functionalist sociologist Talcott Parsons, the family has two 'basic and irreducible functions'. These functions are:
  - **Primary socialization**- since this happens during the early years of childhood, the family is the most important arena for the development of the human personality
  - **Personality stabilization-** refers to the role that the family plays in assisting adult family members emotionally. Marriage between adult men and women is the arrangement through which adult personalities are supported and kept healthy
    - In industrial society, the role of the family in stabilizing adult personalities is said to be critical. This is because the nuclear family is often distanced from its extended kin and is unable to draw on larger kinship ties as families could do before industrialization
    - Parsons regarded the nuclear family as the unit best equipped to handle the demands of industrial society In the 'conventional family' , one adult can work outside the home, while the second adult cares for the home and children. In practical terms, this specialization of roles within

the nuclear family involved the husband adopting the 'instrumental' role as breadwinner, and the wife assuming the 'affective', emotional role in domestic settings.

- ❖ However as societies industrialize and become more complex, with an increasing division of labor and specialization of tasks, so agencies outside the family have taken over responsibilities, a good example being the education of the young. Welfare benefits for the elderly, the sick and unemployed have supplanted the economic and maintenance functions of the family.

c) William F. Ogburn by (Schaefer 2013)

- ➢ He points out the family performs six paramount functions:
  - Reproduction
  - Protection
  - Socialization
  - Regulation of sexual behavior
  - Affection and companionship
  - Provision of social status
- ➢ Traditionally, the family has fulfilled a number of other functions, such as providing religious training, education, and recreational outlets. But Ogburn argued that other social institutions have gradually assumed many of those functions. Education once took place at the family fireside; now it is the responsibility of professionals working in schools and colleges.

d) Ronald Fletcher

- ➢ He was broadly in agreement with the Functionalist approach, but disagreed with the view that the functions of the family in advanced societies had diminished.
- ➢ He listed the following modern functions of the family:
  - Regulating sexual behavior
  - Providing a responsible basis for procreation and the rearing of the young.
  - Caring for dependent members, whether young or old
  - Acting as the earliest and most powerful socializing agency
  - Teaching family members the roles they play in society, and helping them accept rights, duties, and obligations linked to those roles.

Criticism of functionalist view on family

- ➢ Functionalist theories of the family have come under heavy criticism for justifying the domestic division of labor between men and women as something natural and unproblematic.
- ➢ Functionalists overemphasize the role of the family and neglecting the role that other social institutions, such as government, media and schools, play in socializing children.
- ➢ Finally the 'dark side' of family life is arguably underplayed in functionalist accounts and therefore not given the significance it deserves.
- ➢ This looks to be a very positive view of the family. Feminists and Marxists may disagree!

2. **Conflict Theory and Families**

- Conflict theorists view the family not as a contributor to social stability, but as a reflection of the *inequality in wealth* and *power* that is found within the larger society
- Whereas functionalist theory conceptualizes the family as an integrative institution (meaning it has the function of maintaining social stability), conflict theorists depict the family as an institution subject to the same *conflicts* and *tensions* that characterize the rest of society.
- Rather than focusing on ways that kinship benefits society, this approach points out how the family perpetuates social inequality.

a) **Property and inheritance**-Friedrich Engels traced the origin of the family to men's need (especially in the higher classes) to identify heirs so that they could hand down property to their sons. Families thus concentrate wealth and reproduce the class structure in each new generation.

b) **Capitalism and family**- Eli Zaretsky (1976) argues that the family is expected to act as a haven where the worker can find solace after a harassing day. He argues that the family served the interest of capitalism through:

- unpaid (domestic work) of women,
- reproduction of labor force
- by being an important unit of consumption

c) **Race and ethnicity**-Racial and ethnic categories persist over generations because most people marry others like themselves. Endogamous marriage supports racial and ethnic hierarchies e.g by marrying from within the same ethnic group that will continue the existence of that group hence inequality will persist.

3. **Feminist Theory and Families**

- Feminist theory conceptualizes the family as a system of *power relations* and *social conflict*.
- They have sought to show that the presence of unequal power relationships within the family means that certain family members tend to benefit more than others

a) **Domestic division of labor**-Feminist scholars criticized functionalist view that the gender division of labor in the household is functional for society.

- Feminists have also been critical of functional theory for assuming an inevitable gender division of labor within the family.
- Feminist critics argue that, although functionalists may see the gender division of labor as functional, it is based on *stereotypes* about men's and women's roles.
- This process resulted in the crystallization of 'male spheres' and 'female spheres' and power relationships which are felt to this day. Until recently, the *male breadwinner* model has been widespread in most industrialized societies.

b) **Capitalism and family-**women are exploited in that they are expected to provide outlets for all the frustration and anger that their husbands experience at work and therefore prevent them from rebelling against their employers (also refer to Marxist conflict theory for more)

c) **Patriarchy-** Feminists link the family to patriarchy.

- To know their heirs, men must control the sexuality of women. Families therefore transform women into the sexual and economic property of men.

- Radical feminists Christine Delphy and Diana Leonard (1992) argue men have:
  - more decision making power
  - consume more of what the family has,
  - retain control of finances (even when they are unemployed and when the woman is earning it)
  - benefit from women's domestic work and emotional support

d) caring activities-women spend their time in raising children at whatever cost to their own paid work or other activities and projects

- Several feminist writers have been interested in 'emotion work' within relationships. This emotion work vary from attending to a family member who is ill to looking after an elderly relative over a long period of time.

Criticism of feminist theory on family

- 'Difference feminists' such as Linda Nicholson (1997) and Cheshire Calhoun (1997) criticized other types of feminists for neglecting to take into consideration the fact that women in different types of households experience family life differently
- They argue that it is not possible that women are exploited the same way in all types of families
- Many factors shape the experience that women have of family life eg social class, race and family structure like nuclear family, extended family etc
- This links the family experiences to other influences in society, demonstrating that family is not an isolated unity but an integral part of the social system

Symbolic Interaction Theory and Families

- Both structural-functional and social-conflict analyses view the family as a structural system. By contrast, micro-level analysis (interactionism) explores how individuals shape and experience family life.
- Their primary views encompass the ideas that family:
  - Emerge as people interact to meet basic needs and develop meaningful relationships
  - Are where people learn social identities through their interactions with others (consider self-theories)
  - Are places where people negotiate their roles and relationships with each other. The symbolic interaction perspective understands that roles within families are not fixed, but rather evolve as participants define and redefine their behavior toward each other.
  - Change as people develop new understandings of family life
- Interactionists focus on the micro level of family and other intimate relationships. They are interested in how individuals interact with one another, whether they are cohabiting partners or longtime married couples. For example, in a study of both Black and White two-parent households, researchers found that when fathers are more involved with their children (reading to them, helping them with homework, or restricting their television viewing), the children have fewer behavior problems, get along better with others, and are more responsible
- The symbolic-interaction approach explains that the reality of family life is constructed by members in their interaction

- It also emphasizes that meanings people give to their behavior and that of others is the basis of social interaction e.g the wife being the emotional supporter can interpret the situation which prevailed at the husband's workplace through the way the husband will be behaving
- As family members share many activities over time, they identify with each other and build emotional bonds
- Symbolic interaction studies how people negotiate family relationships, such as deciding who does what housework, how they will arrange child care, and how they will balance the demands of work and family life.

Views on marriage

- It is based on negotiated meanings
- When people get married, they form a new relationship and new identities with specific meanings within society.
- Some changes may seem very abrupt—a change of name certainly requires adjustment, as does being called a husband or wife.
- Other changes are more subtle—how one is treated by others and the privileges couples enjoy (such as being a recognized legal unit).

TOPIC 4: CULTURE

- **Culture** refer to the language, beliefs, values, norms, behaviors, and even material objects that characterize a group and are passed from one generation to the next (Henslin 2012)
- Culture is the complex system of meaning and behavior that defines the way of life for a given group or society. It includes beliefs, values, knowledge, art, morals, laws, customs, habits, language, and dress, among other things (Andersen 2017)
- Culture is both material and nonmaterial. **Material culture** consist the material objects that distinguish a group of people, such as their art, buildings, weapons, utensils, machines, hairstyles, clothing, and jewelry. **Nonmaterial culture** (also called symbolic culture) a group's ways of thinking (including its beliefs, values, and other assumptions about the world) and doing (its common patterns of behavior, including language and other forms of interaction)
- Nonmaterial culture is less tangible than material culture, but it has an equally strong, if not stronger, presence in social behavior. Nonmaterial culture is found in patterns of everyday life. For example, in some cultures, people eat with utensils; in others, people do not. The eating utensils are part of material culture, but the belief about whether to use them is nonmaterial culture.
- Given the extent of cultural differences in the world and people's tendency to view their own way of life as "natural," it is no wonder that travelers often find themselves feeling uneasy as they enter an unfamiliar culture. This uneasiness is **culture shock**-a personal disorientation when experiencing an unfamiliar way of life.
- Culture shock can result from ethnocentrism. **Ethnocentrism** the use of one's own culture as a yardstick for judging the ways of other individuals or societies, generally leading to a negative evaluation of their values, norms, and behaviors. It is the habit of seeing things only from the point of view of one's own group.
- As sociologist William Sumner (1906), who developed this concept of ethnocentrism, said, "One's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it."
- Ethnocentrism has both positive and negative consequences. On the positive side, it creates in-group loyalties. On the negative side, ethnocentrism can lead to discrimination against people whose ways differ from ours. People use terms such as *underdeveloped, backward,* and *primitive* to refer to other societies. What "we" believe is a religion; what "they" believe is superstition and mythology.
- Westerners who think cattle are to be used for food might look down on India's Hindu religion and culture, which view the cow as sacred.
- Ethnocentrism can build group solidarity, but it can limit intergroup understanding
- Taken to extremes, ethnocentrism can lead to overt political conflict, war, terrorism, even *genocide*, the mass killing of people based on their membership in a particular group. One might wonder how people could believe so much in the righteousness of their religious faith that they would murder people.

- Ethnocentrism can lead to dislike for other cultures and could cause misunderstanding and conflict. People with the best intentions sometimes travel to a society to "help" its people, because they see them as uneducated or backward—essentially inferior. In reality, these travelers are guilty of **cultural imperialism**, the deliberate imposition of one's own cultural values on another culture e.g colonization of Zimbabwe by the British to spread civilization
- Contrasting with ethnocentrism is cultural relativism. **Cultural relativism** is the idea that something can be understood and judged only in relation to the cultural context in which it appears.
- It places a priority on understanding other cultures, rather than dismissing them as "strange" or "exotic."
- Unlike ethnocentrists, cultural relativists employ the kind of value neutrality in scientific study that Max Weber saw as so important.
- Cultural relativism stresses that different social contexts give rise to different norms and values. Thus, we must examine practices such as polygamy, bullfighting, and monarchy within the particular contexts of the cultures in which they are found.
- Although cultural relativism does not suggest that we must unquestionably accept every cultural variation, it does require a serious and unbiased effort to evaluate norms, values, and customs in light of their distinctive culture
- Understanding cultural relativism gives insight into some controversies, such as the international debate about the practice of clitoridectomy—a form of genital mutilation. In a clitoridectomy (sometimes called female circumcision), all or part of a young woman's clitoris is removed, usually not by medical personnel, often in very unsanitary conditions, and without any painkillers.
- From the point of view of Western cultures, clitoridectomy is genital mutilation—a form of violence against women. Many have called for international intervention to eliminate the practice, but there is also a debate about whether disgust at this practice should be balanced by a reluctance to impose Western cultural values on other societies
- Sometimes when people attempt to rectify feelings of ethnocentrism and develop cultural relativism, they swing too far to the other end of the spectrum. **Xenocentrism** is the opposite of ethnocentrism, and refers to the belief that another culture is superior to one's own. (The Greek root word *xeno*, pronounced "ZEE-no," means "stranger" or "foreign guest.") e.g in Zimbabwe people tend to view western culture as superior to theirs
- Often, a comparison of one culture to another will reveal obvious differences. But all cultures also share common elements. **Cultural universals** are patterns or traits that are globally common to all societies. One example of a cultural universal is the family unit: every human society recognizes a family structure that regulates sexual reproduction and the care of children.
- Anthropologist George Murdock (1945:124) compiled a list of cultural universals, including athletic sports, cooking, dancing, visiting, personal names, marriage, medicine, religious ritual, funeral ceremonies, sexual restrictions, and trade.
- Murdock identified other universals including language, the concept of personal names, and, interestingly, jokes. Humor seems to be a universal way to release tensions and create a sense of unity among people (Murdock 1949).

- The cultural practices Murdock listed may be universal, but the manner in which they are expressed varies from culture to culture. For example, one society may let its members choose their marriage partners; another may encourage marriages arranged by the parents.

Forms of Culture

a) Dominant Culture

- The dominant culture is the culture of the most powerful group in a society.
- Although the dominant culture is not the only culture in a society, it is commonly believed to be "the" culture of a society, despite the other cultures present.
- A dominant culture need not be the culture of the majority of people. It is simply the culture of the most powerful group in society who have the power to define the cultural framework

b) Subculture

- Subculture is the culture of groups whose values and norms of behavior differ to some degree from those of the dominant culture.
- In a sense, a subculture can be thought of as a culture existing within a larger, dominant culture.
- Frequently, a subculture will develop an argot, or specialized language, that distinguishes it from the wider society. **Argot** is a specialized language used by members of a group or subculture.
- Subcultures typically share some elements of the dominant culture and coexist within it, although some subcultures may be quite separated from the dominant one.
- This separation occurs because they are either unwilling or unable to assimilate into the dominant culture, that is, to share its values, norms, and beliefs (Dowd and Dowd 2003).
- Rap and hip-hop music first emerged as a subculture as young African Americans developed their own style of dress and music to articulate their resistance to the dominant White culture. Now, rap and hip-hop have been incorporated into mainstream youth culture

c) Counterculture

- Sociologists distinguish subcultures from countercultures, which are a type of subculture that rejects some of the larger culture's norms and values.
- Counterculture refers to cultural patterns that strongly oppose those widely accepted within a society. Cults, a word derived from culture, are also considered counterculture group.
- In contrast to subcultures, which operate relatively smoothly within the larger society, countercultures might actively defy larger society by developing their own set of rules and norms to live by, sometimes even creating communities that operate outside of greater society.
- Countercultures do not have to be negative, however.
- Countercultures typically thrive among the young, who have the least investment in the existing culture. In most cases, a 20-year-old can adjust to new cultural standards more easily than someone who has spent 60 years following the patterns of the dominant culture (Zellner 1995).
- Countercultures may also develop in situations where there is political repression and some groups are forced "underground." Under a dictatorship, for example, some groups may be forbidden to practice their religion or speak their own language. In Spain, under the dictator Francisco Franco, people were forbidden to speak Catalan—the language of the region

around Barcelona. When Franco died in 1975 and Spain became more democratic, the Catalan language flourished—both in public speaking and in the press.

d) Folk culture

- Folk culture is the culture created by local communities and is rooted in the experiences, customs and beliefs of the everyday life of ordinary people e.g traditional folk music, folk songs, story-telling and folk dances.

e) High culture

- Sociologists use the term high culture to refer to cultural patterns that distinguish a society's elite.
- They also use the term high culture to describe the pattern of cultural experiences and attitudes that exist in the highest class segments of a society.
- People often associate high culture with intellectualism, political power, and prestige
- Events considered high culture can be expensive and formal—attending a ballet, seeing a play, or listening to a live symphony performance, classical music like Mozart, jazz, opera etc
- High culture literature include work of Charles Dickens, Jane Austen, Shakespeare

f) Popular Culture

- Popular culture refers to the beliefs, practices, and objects that are part of everyday traditions, such as music and films, mass-marketed books and magazines, newspapers, and Internet websites.
- The term popular culture also refers to the pattern of cultural experiences and attitudes that exist in mainstream society.
- Popular culture is distinct from elite culture (sometimes referred to as "high culture"), which is shared by only a select few but is highly valued
- Unlike high culture, popular culture is known and accessible to most people.
- Popular culture is also supported by mass consumption, as the many objects associated with popular culture are promoted and sold to a consuming public.
- Although popular culture may be widely available and relatively cheap for consumers, some groups derive their cultural experiences from expensive theater shows or opera performances where tickets may cost hundreds of dollars.

g) Global culture

- The diffusion of a single culture throughout the world is referred to as global culture.
- It also refers to the way globalization has undermined national and local cultures, with cultural products and ways of life in different countries of the world becoming more alike
- **Globalization** is the breaking down of national boundaries because of advances in communications, trade, and travel. As globalization shrinks the globe, that is, people around the world become more interconnected within the same global village
- Despite the enormous diversity of cultures worldwide, U.S. markets increasingly dominate fashion, food, entertainment, and other cultural values, thereby creating a more homogenous world culture. U.S has the top 10 brands in the world based on Interbrand 2012:Coca-Cola, IBM, Microsoft, Google, GE, McDonald's, Intel, Apple, Disney, Hewlett-Packard(HP) (Schaefer 2013)
- Global culture is increasingly marked by capitalist interests, squeezing out the more diverse folk cultures that have been common throughout the world (Steger 2009)

- Sociologist George Ritzer coined the term *McDonaldization of society* to describe how the principles of fast-food restaurants, developed in the United States, have come to dominate more and more sectors of societies throughout the world
- McDonaldization refers to the increasing and ubiquitous presence of the fast-food model in most organizations that shape daily life. This business model includes efficiency (the division of labor), predictability, calculability, and control (monitoring).
- For example McDonald's is a worldwide business with 37 855 restaurants in more than 119 countries (in 2018). Other McDonald's models include Pizza Hut and Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) which operate in 136 countries with 22 621 restaurants (December 2018)
- Other companies besides those from U.S like Nescafé and Nestle (Switzerland) , Sony, Toyota , Nissan (japan), Gucci, Georgio Armani,Ferrari (Italy), Nivea, Mercedes- Benz, BMW, Audi(Germany) , Barclays, Unilever (Britain) have become part of the global culture
- People also now watch and listen to almost similar TV programs and music e.g English premier league, WWE wrestling , top 100 billboard charts in this global culture

Multiculturalism and Cultural Diversity

- **Multiculturalism** is a perspective recognizing the cultural diversity of a particular society and promoting equal standing for all cultural traditions.
- **Cultural diversity** is a perspective recognizing multiculturalism of a particular society and promoting equal standing for all cultural traditions.
- These two may involve Eurocentrism and Afrocentrism. **Eurocentrism**, is the dominance of European (especially English) cultural patterns. **Afrocentrism**, is emphasizing and promoting African cultural patterns
- Although multiculturalism and cultural diversity has found favor in recent years, it has drawn its share of criticism as well. Opponents say:
  - it encourages divisiveness rather than unity because it urges people to identify with their own category rather than with the nation as a whole
  - there will be language barriers
  - Social tension e.g In 2005, British Prime Minister Tony Blair responded to a terrorist attack in London, stating, "It is important that the terrorists realize [that] our determination to defend our values and our way of life is greater than their determination to . . . impose their extremism on the world." He went on to warn that the British government would expel Muslim clerics who encouraged hatred and terrorism (Barone, 2005; Carle, 2008).

- However in a world of cultural difference and conflict cultural diversity can:,
  - Make people learn much about tolerance and peacemaking.
  - Bring economic strength. Diverse societies can harness the talents of different groups of people to make a more robust economy
  - Enhance learning of foreign languages and values

Elements of culture

- Elements of culture are the essential parts or components that make up a particular culture. According to Andersen (2017) they include language, norms, beliefs, and values. Macionis (2013) points out that they include symbols, language, values, and norms.

A. Symbols

- A symbol is anything that carries a particular meaning recognized by people who share a culture. Symbols include gestures, language, values, norms, sanctions, folkways, and mores.
- **Gestures** refer to the ways in which people use their bodies to communicate with one another without using words
- Not understanding the symbols of a culture leaves a person feeling lost and isolated, unsure of how to act, and sometimes frightened. Culture shock is really the inability to "read" meaning in strange surroundings e.g in Zimbabwe some people may only know ear piercing as the popular culture in most Shona and Ndebele cultures but may be disgusted to see lips, nose, tongues and eyebrow piercing among the Tonga

B. Language

- Language is a system of symbols that allows people to communicate with one another e.g Shona, Ndebele ,English
- Language not only allows communication but is also the key to **cultural transmission**, the process by which one generation passes culture to the next.
- Language is crucial in this instances:
  - Provides a Social or Shared Past- Without language, our memories would be extremely limited, for we associate experiences with words and then use words to recall the experience.
  - Provides a Social or Shared Future- Language also extends our time horizons forward. Because language enables us to agree on times, dates, and places, it allows us to plan activities with one another
  - Allows Shared Perspectives- Our ability to speak, then, provides us a social (or shared) past and future. This is vital for humanity. It is a watershed that distinguishes us from animals.
  - Allows Shared, Goal-Directed Behavior- Common understandings enable us to establish a *purpose* for getting together. Let's suppose you want to go on a picnic. You use speech not only to plan the picnic but also to decide on reasons for having the picnic
- Language is clearly a big part of culture. Edward Sapir and his student Benjamin Whorf thought that language was central in determining social thought.
- The **Sapir-Whorf thesis** states that people see and understand the world through the cultural lens of language. The thesis also states that:
  - Because people can conceptualize the world only through language, language *precedes* thought. Thus, the word symbols and grammar of a language organize the world for us.
  - Language is not a given. Rather, it is culturally determined, and it encourages a distinctive interpretation of reality by focusing our attention on certain phenomena (Sapir 1929).

C. Norms

- Norms are the specific cultural expectations for how to behave in a given situation. They are crucial this way:
  - Society without norms would be chaos.
  - With norms in place, people know how to act, and social interactions are consistent, predictable, and learnable
- Norms can be implicit or explicit. Sometimes norms are implicit—that is, they need not be spelled out for people to understand them. For example, when joining a line, there is an implicit norm that you should stand behind the last person, not barge in front of those ahead of you.
- They are explicit when the rules governing behavior are written down or formally communicated. Typically, specific sanctions are imposed for violating explicit norms.
- The term **sanctions** refers to the reactions people receive for following or breaking norms.
- A **positive sanction** expresses approval for following a norm. Positive sanctions can be material, such as a prize, a trophy, or money, but in everyday life they usually consist of hugs, smiles, a pat on the back, or even handshakes and "high fives." Getting a raise at work is a positive sanction, indicating that you have followed the norms clustering around work values.
- A **negative sanction** reflects disapproval for breaking a norm. Negative sanctions can also be material—being fined in court is one example— but negative sanctions, too, are more likely to be symbolic: harsh words, or gestures such as frowns, stares, clenched jaws, or raised fists. Getting fired, however, is a negative sanction, indicating that you have violated these norms.

Types of Norms

i. **Formal norms** -established, written rules. They are behaviors worked out and agreed upon in order to suit and serve the most people. Laws are formal norms, but so are employee manuals, college entrance exam requirements

ii. **Informal norms**- casual behaviors that are generally and widely conformed to but not precisely recorded. Standards of proper dress are a common example of informal norms. People learn informal norms by observation, imitation, and general socialization.

NB. William Graham Sumner (1959, orig. 1906), an early U.S. sociologist, recognized that some norms are more important to our lives than others. He identified two types of norms: folkways and mores.

iii. **Mores** (pronounced as MORE-rays)- norms that are strictly enforced because they are thought essential to core values or to the well-being of the group. They are taken seriously e.g a person who steals, rapes, or kills has violated some of society's most important mores.
  - Mores are often upheld through **laws**, which are the written set of guidelines that define right and wrong in society. Basically, laws are formalized mores. Violating mores can bring serious repercussions.
  - Mores, which include taboos, are the norms in our society that insist, for example, that adults not walk around in public without wearing clothes.

iv. **Folkways**- these include norms that are not strictly enforced, norms for routine or casual interaction. Examples include how people greet each other, decorate their homes, and prepare their food. Folkways are loosely defined and loosely followed.

- As sociologist Ian Robertson (1987:62) put it, ***A man who walks down a street wearing nothing on the upper half of his body is violating a folkway; a man who walks down the street wearing nothing on the lower half of his body is violating one of our most important mores, the requirement that people cover their genitals and buttocks in public***
- It should also be noted that one group's folkways may be another group's mores. Although a man walking down the street with the upper half of his body uncovered is deviating from a folkway, a woman doing the same thing is violating the mores.
- In short, mores distinguish between right and wrong, and folkways draw a line between right and *rude.* A man who does not wear a tie to a formal dinner party may raise eyebrows for violating folkways. If, however, he were to arrive at the party wearing *only* a tie, he would violate cultural mores and invite a more serious response.

D. Values- are a culture's standard for discerning what is good and just in society. They are the standards by which people define what is desirable or undesirable, good or bad, beautiful or ugly

- Values may be specific, such as honoring one's parents and owning a home, or they may be more general, such as health, love, and democracy
- Values influence people's behavior and serve as criteria for evaluating the actions of others. The values, norms, and sanctions of a culture are often directly related. For example, if a culture places a high value on the institution of marriage, it may have norms (and strict sanctions) that prohibit the act of adultery or make divorce difficult. If a culture views private property as a basic value, it will probably have stiff laws against theft and vandalism.
- Values often suggest how people should behave, but they don't accurately reflect how people do behave.
- Values portray an **ideal culture**, the standards society would like to embrace and live up to. But ideal culture differs from **real culture**, the way society actually is, based on what occurs and exists.
- In an ideal culture, there would be no traffic accidents, murders, poverty, or racial tension. But in real culture, police officers, lawmakers, educators, and social workers constantly strive to prevent or repair those accidents, crimes, and injustices.

E. Beliefs-are shared ideas held collectively by people within a given culture about what is true. They are specific thoughts or ideas that people hold to be true

- In other words, values are abstract standards of goodness, and beliefs are particular matters that individuals consider true or false.
- Shared beliefs are part of what binds people together in society.
- Beliefs are also the basis for many norms and values of a given culture.
- Some beliefs are so strongly held that people find it difficult to cope with ideas or experiences that contradict them. Someone who devoutly believes in God may find atheism intolerable; those who believe in magic may seem merely superstitious to those with a more scientific and rational view of the world.

Characteristics of culture

1. **Culture is shared-** it is collectively experienced and collectively agreed upon. In Zimbabwe cultural elements like Shona and Ndebele language are shared via the education curriculum which advocates for the teaching of these languages. The values of respect for elders are commonly shared in various Zimbabwean societies. Christianity is also shared
2. **Culture is learned behavior**-Cultural beliefs and practices are usually so well learned that they seem perfectly natural, but they are learned nonetheless. Sociologists refer to the process of learning culture as *socialization.*
   - Sometimes the terms conscious learning and unconscious learning are used to distinguish the learning. **Conscious learning** of culture is planned and with the individual's full awareness e.g. at school folkways of dressing are learned. **Unconscious learning** of culture is unplanned and usually without the individual's full awareness e.g. the norm of standing in a queue or the ways in which a child handles a tyrannical father often affect the ways in which that child handles his relationship with others
   - Some learned behavior is overt or covert. **Overt behavior** is openly visible e.g. eating with folks, hand gestures. **Covert behavior** is not openly visible to other people e.g. planning for tomorrow's work
3. **Culture is overt and covert**- it is overt on such things we can observe as houses, clothes, speech form. It is covert when we consider some underlying attitude towards nature and the interpretation of the world's view. Covert culture can also be seen in their religious beliefs like worshipping
4. **Culture is symbolic**-The significance of culture lies in the meaning it holds for people. The meaning in a symbol is not inherent but is bestowed by the meaning people give it. The Zimbabwean flag, for example, is literally a decorated piece of cloth. Its cultural significance derives not from the cloth of which it is made but from its meaning as a symbol of sovereignty. Desecration of the flag invokes strong emotional reactions, just as flying it invokes strong feelings of patriotism and pride.
5. **Culture is explicit and implicit**- culture is explicit when we consider those actions, which can be explained and described readily by those who perform them e.g. people can explain why they greet others. Culture is implicit when we consider those things we do, but are unable to explain them yet we believe them to be so e.g. the norm of standing in a queue.
6. **Culture is abstract**- it exists only in the minds or habits of the members of society we cannot see culture but we can only see human behavior which occurs in regular, patterned fashion called culture
7. **Culture is pervasive**- it touches every aspect of life. e.g. language, beliefs, attitudes
8. **Culture is a human product-** it is not independent of human actors. It is a creation of the society in interaction and depends for its existence upon continuance of society.
9. **Culture varies across time and place**-Culture is not fixed from one place to another e.g. there is dowry during marriage in India while in Zimbabwe there is bride price. As people encounter new situations, the culture that emerges is a mix of the past and present. Subcultures emerge within a culture for various reasons. Examples may include:
   - Protection of a group's values e.g
     - Use of slang language by youths to evade interference of conversations by elders for instance HDD meaning Hard Disk Drive

- Use of code language through phonetic alphabet by the security department of the society like soldiers and police to evade interception by the enemy e.g. every letter A-Z has a specific code like in the following instance(not real) **A**- apple **B**- banana **C**-carrot **D**-dog **E**-elephant **F**-fish **G**-grind therefore to say "EGG" one can say "**E**lephant-**G**rind-**G**rind" or to say "FADE" one can say "**F**ish-**A**pple-**D**og-**E**lephant"
- The law society and judiciary uses some terms which might not be familiar to all people but only common to them for their easy communication e.g. subpoena, indictment, plaintiff, defendant, respondent

➢ Religious affiliations
➢ Failure to fully integrate into the society
➢ Poverty
➢ Discrimination

10. **Culture is stable, yet changing**- when culture comes into contact with other cultures, it has to charge. Among the BaTonga people widow inheritance has now been done without sexual contract different from the old way which included sex.

➢ The changes can take any of these three ways:
- If the receiving culture is more powerful, it absorbs the incoming cultural elements and refashions them as part of its own culture.
- If the receiving culture is at the same level of development as the incoming elements, there is a level of partnership and they fuse into one another
- If the incoming culture is more dominating than the receiving one relegates the receiving to the background and the incoming culture tends to take its shape.

Causes of Cultural Change

➢ **A change in the societal conditions**-Economic changes can increase crime, population changes like high birth rate create more youths, and other social transformations all influence the development of culture. A change in the makeup of a society's population may be enough by itself to cause a cultural transformation.
➢ **Cultural diffusion**-the spread of cultural traits from one society to another. This is evident in the degree to which worldwide cultures have been Westernized or McDonaldized. Cultural diffusion also occurs when subcultural influences enter the dominant group.
➢ **Innovation including inventions and technological developments** - *invention,* is the process of creating new cultural elements e.g. the invention of ICT
➢ **Cultural change can be imposed**- Change can occur when a powerful group takes over a society and imposes a new culture e.g. cultural imperialism

Effects of cultural change

➢ One result is **cultural leveling,** a process in which cultures become similar to one another.
➢ Xenocentrism
➢ Some elements of culture change faster than others. William Ogburn (1964) observed that technology moves quickly, generating new elements of material culture (things) faster than nonmaterial culture (ideas) can keep up with them. Ogburn called this inconsistency

cultural lag-the fact that some cultural elements change more quickly than others, disrupting a cultural system. In other words, one aspect of culture may "lag" behind another.

The influence of culture in promoting unhu/Ubuntu

- Sanctions promote *human dignity* in the sense that if a person do something wrong like stealing there is a negative sanction
- Positive sanctions increase *co-operation* within the society as people will be driven to do good due to rewards e.g. the philanthropist or humanitarian awards in soe societies to those who do philanthropic work
- Mores demands *conformity* on the part of humans. Laws of a society are part of Mores meant to make people conform to the set standards. They bring social order
- Values govern the conduct of people towards each other e.g *Respect*
- Religious beliefs of a society promotes *compassion*. For instance most Christian denomination preach the gospel of helping the need
- However due to cultural change, globalization and cultural diversity some elements of Ubuntu have been undermined
- Countercultures arise which sometimes perpetuate prohibited beliefs, values etc e.g. corruption may arise due inability to follow formal norms

Sociological perspectives on culture

1. **Functionalist Perspective**

- Functionalists view society as a system in which all parts work—or function—together to create society as a whole. In this way, societies need culture to exist.
- Culture is a system of behavior by which members of societies cooperate to meet their needs.
- On the foundation of culture, cultural patterns are rooted in a society's core values and beliefs
- **Culture**:
  - Exists to meet its members' basic needs.
  - Reflects a society's strong central values
  - Forms like subcultures serve the interests of subgroups
  - Provides coherence and stability in society
  - Creates norms and values that integrate people in society
- **Cultural norms:**
  - function to support the fluid operation of society
  - Reinforce societal standards
- **Cultural values:**
  - Guide people in making choices. e.g. on right or wrong
  - Are collective conceptions of what is good
  - Mold an individual e.g. the value of education in Zimbabwe mold *unhu*

2. **Conflict Perspective**
   - Conflict theorists view social structure as inherently unequal, based on power differentials related to issues like class, gender, race, and age. For a conflict theorist, culture is seen as reinforcing issues of "privilege" for certain groups based upon race, sex, class, and so on.
   - On the foundation of culture, cultural patterns are rooted in a society's system of economic production.
   - **Culture:**
     - Is a system that benefits some people and disadvantages others. e.g. patriarchy benefits men more than women.
     - Serves the interests of powerful groups e.g. some religious beliefs teach people to be passive and submissive to those above them or in authority
     - Can be a source of political resistance and social change. Reclaiming an indigenous culture that had been denied or repressed is one way that groups mobilize to assert their independence. E.g. in Zimbabwe the liberation struggle was partly meant to restore indigenous culture eroded by cultural imperialism
     - Is increasingly controlled by economic monopolies e.g. the infrastructure(base) - superstructure relationship
     - Forms like Countercultures question the dominant social order; ethnocentrism devalues groups
     - Reflects a society's dominant ideology. i.e. the ideas of those in power become the culture of the society
   - **Cultural norms:**
     - Reinforce patterns of dominance e.g. marriage practice of bride price as a norm makes women dominated by men
     - Some norms, formal and informal, are practiced at the expense of others .e.g. those in power might not follow some of the formal norms (laws). Some laws favor women more than men and vis versa
   - **Cultural values:**
     - Inequalities exist within a culture's value system. e.g. the value of education might not be equally applied between boys and girls in some Zimbabwean cultures

3. **Feminist Perspective**
   - **Culture:**
     - Reflects society's view of men and women
     - Reflects the interests and perspectives of powerful men
     - Is anchored in the inequality of women
     - Creates images and values that reproduce sexist images e.g. the boy sex preferences treat women as baby making machines
   - Cultural norms reinforce roles of men and women e.g. gender stereotypes
   - Cultural values may perpetuate men's dominance e.g. marriage practices
4. **Symbolic interactionist perspective**
   - It is a sociological perspective that is most concerned with the face-to-face interactions between members of society. Interactionists see culture as being created and

maintained by the ways people interact and in how individuals interpret each other's actions

- Proponents of this theory conceptualize human interactions as a continuous. Process of deriving meaning from both objects in the environment and the actions of others. This is where the term symbolic comes into play
- Every object and action has a symbolic meaning, and language serves as a means for people to represent and communicate their interpretations of these meanings to others.
- Those who believe in symbolic interactionism perceive culture as highly dynamic and fluid, as it is dependent on how meaning is interpreted and how individuals interact when conveying these meanings.
- **Culture**:
  - Creates group identity from diverse cultural meanings
  - Changes as people produce new cultural meanings
  - Is perpetuated through daily social interactions
  - Is socially constructed through the activities of social groups

- Cultural norms are maintained through face-to-face interaction
- Cultural values are defined and redefined through social interaction

TOPIC 5: RELIGION

Religion: Basic Concepts

- From the Latin *religio* (respect for what is sacred) and *religare* (to bind, in the sense of an obligation), the term **religion** describes various systems of belief and practice that define what people consider to be sacred or spiritual (Fasching and deChant 2001; Durkheim 1915)
- The French sociologist Emile Durkheim stated that religion involves "things that surpass the limits of our knowledge"(1965:62, orig. 1915)
- He regarded **religion** as a unified system of beliefs and practices relative to sacred things, that is to say, things set apart and forbidden—beliefs and practices which unite into one single moral community called a Church (Durkheim 1917)
- **religion** according to Durkheim, contain beliefs and practices that separate the profane from the sacred and unite its adherents into a moral community
- By **sacred,** Durkheim referred to aspects of life having to do with the supernatural that inspire awe, reverence, deep respect, even fear. A **totem** is an object or living thing that a religious group regards with special reverence. e.g. totems in Indigenous religion
- By **profane** or **secular** (from Latin, meaning "outside the temple"), he meant aspects of life that are not concerned with religion but, instead, are part of ordinary, everyday life
- The sacred is embodied in **ritual**, or *formal, ceremonial behavior*. Holy Communion is the central ritual of Christianity; to the Christian faithful, the wafer and wine consumed during Communion are never treated in a profane way as food but as the sacred symbols of the body and blood of Jesus Christ.
    - According to Durkheim, Religion**,** then, has three elements:
      1. *Beliefs* that some things are sacred (forbidden, set apart from the profane)
      2. *Practices* (rituals) centering on the things considered sacred
      3. *A moral community* (a church), which results from a group's beliefs and practices
- Durkheim used the word **church** in an unusual sense, to refer to any "moral community" centered on beliefs and practices regarding the sacred.
- **church** according to Durkheim, one of the three essential elements of religion—a moral community of believers; also refers to a large, highly organized religious group that has formal, sedate worship services with little emphasis on evangelism, intense religious experience, or personal conversion
- Similarly, the term *moral community* does not imply morality in the sense familiar to most of us—of ethical conduct. Rather, a moral community is simply a group of people who are united by their religious practices—and that would include sixteenth-century Aztec priests who each day gathered around an altar to pluck out the beating heart of a virgin.

Components of Religion

- Sociologists study religion as both a belief system and a social institution
- In studying religion, sociologists distinguish between what they term the experience, beliefs, and rituals of a religion.

a) **Religious experience** refers to the conviction or sensation that we are connected to "the divine." This type of communion might be experienced when people are praying or meditating.

b) **Religious beliefs** are specific ideas members of a particular faith hold to be true, such as that Jesus Christ was (is) the son of God, or that reincarnation exists.

- Religion is a matter of **faith**, belief based on conviction rather than on scientific evidence. The New Testament of the Bible defines faith as "the conviction of things not seen" (Hebrews 11:1) and urges Christians to "walk by faith, not by sight" (2 Corinthians 5:7)
- In most faiths, those members who held strict views of scripture became more outspoken, questioning those who remained open to a variety of newer interpretations. **Fundamentalism** may be defined as an emphasis on doctrinal conformity and the literal interpretation of sacred texts.
- Religion is an institution consisting those aspects of our behavioral complexes that are organized around beliefs, in spiritual or supernatural beings
- Two concepts that are important in the definition of religion are the supernatural and the sacred
- The supernatural beings are of three main internal different categories, God, spirits and ghosts (Otite: 1979) e.g among the Shona he is Musikavanhu
- Spiritual beings comprise ancestral spirits, spirits of national heroes.
- Ghosts are sometimes considered to be spirits of dead relatives which sometimes have contact with the living in society to be known as ancestral spirits

c) Religious rituals are behaviors or practices that are either required or expected of the members of a particular group e.g Holy communion in Christianity, *kurova guva* in Indigenous Religion

<u>Types of religious organizations</u>

- Sociologists use different terms, like ecclesia, denomination and sect to define these types of organizations
- Scholars are also aware that these definitions are not static. Most religions transition through different organizational phases. For example, Christianity began as a cult, transformed into a sect, and today exists as an ecclesia

a) Cult or **new religious movement (NRM)** -is generally a small, secretive religious group that represents either a new religion or a major innovation of an existing faith. In modern Zimbabwe the term cult often carries pejorative connotations. e.g. the controversial coming of Hak Ja Moon leader of the Korean cult(The family Federation for World peace and Unification) on 21 November 2018 in Zimbabwe in the guise of peace and reconciliation. However, almost all religions began as cults and gradually progressed to levels of greater size and organization

- In Zimbabwe cults include the cult 'Mudzimu unoyera' led by a teenager which had 130 child followers before the police moved in and arrested the joint founders in Guruve (www.archive.kubatana.net/html/archive/relig/060616irin2)
- The stereotyping of cults as uniformly bizarre and unethical has led sociologists to abandon the term and refer instead to a *new religious movement (NRM).*
- NRMs are similar to sects in that they tend to be small and are often viewed as less respectable than more established faiths.
- Unlike sects, however, NRMs normally do not result from schisms or breaks with established ecclesiae or denominations.

Characteristics of a cult

- Cults form around leaders with great **charisma**, a quality attributed to individuals believed by their followers to have special powers (Johnstone 1992). Typically, followers are convinced that the charismatic leader has received a unique revelation or possesses supernatural gifts. **charismatic leader** literally, is someone to whom God has given a gift; in its extended sense, someone who exerts extraordinary appeal to a group of followers
- A duty to spread the message (evangelism) as well religious fundamentalism

- Hostility toward other religions
- Some do initiation rituals and sacrifices
- Hostility from other religions. Its message is considered bizarre, its approach to life strange
- Emotional expression of religious beliefs. Its members antagonize the majority, who are convinced that they have a monopoly on the truth
- The new religion may claim messages from God, visions, visits from angels—some form of enlightenment or seeing the true way to God.

Challenges faced by cults

- The cult demands intense commitment, and its followers, who are confronting a hostile world, pull together in a tight circle, separating themselves from nonbelievers.
- Some face financial challenges as a result
- People sometimes accuse cults of brainwashing their members, although research suggests that most people who join cults experience no psychological harm (Kilbourne, 1983; P. W. Williams, 2002).
- Not many people believe the new message, and the cult fades into obscurity. Some, however, succeed and make history. If this happens, the new religion changes from a cult to a sect.

b) Sect- it is a small and relatively new group. A sect is larger than a cult, but its members still feel tension between their views and the prevailing beliefs and values of the broader society

- Most of the well-known Christian denominations today began as sects.e.g. UFIC (United Family International Church) led by prophet Makandiwa protested from AFM (Apostolic Faith Mission)
- Sociologist J. Milton Yinger (1970:226–273) uses the term **established sect** to describe a religious group that is the outgrowth of a sect, yet remains isolated from society. They dissolve without growing into denominations. e.g. Jehovah's witnesses fall half way between sect and denomination on the ecclesia-cult continuum because they have a mixture of sect-like and denomination-like characteristics

Characteristics of sects

- Sects tend to place less emphasis on organization (as in churches) and more emphasis on the purity of members' faith.
- Sects tend to admit only truly committed members, refusing to compromise their beliefs
- A sect may even be hostile to the society in which it is located. its members remain uncomfortable with many of the emphases of the dominant culture
- They emphasize personal salvation and an emotional expression of one's relationship with God. Clapping, shouting, dancing, and extemporaneous prayers are hallmarks of sects
- Like cults, sects also stress **evangelism**, the active recruitment of new members.
- Religious fundamentalism.

➢ If a sect grows, its members tend to gradually make peace with the rest of society. To appeal to a broader base, the sect shifts some of its doctrines, redefining matters to remove some of the rough edges that create tension between it and the rest of society. Sects then develop into denominations

c) Denomination- it is a large, organized religion that is not officially linked to the state or government. It is one religion among many e.g. Baptist, seventh-day Adventist and recently PHD(Prophetic Healing and Deliverance) ministries of Walter Magaya

- A denomination is a sect which has 'cooled down' and become an institutionalized body rather than an active protest group (Giddens 2009)

Characteristics of denominations

- Like an ecclesia, it tends to have an explicit set of beliefs
- a defined system of authority
- a generally respected position in society
- Denominations also resemble ecclesiae in that they make few demands on members. However, there is a critical difference between these two forms of religious organization. Although the denomination is considered respectable and is not viewed as a challenge to the secular government, it lacks the official recognition and power held by an ecclesia (Doress and Porter 1977).
- Although members of any denomination hold to their own doctrine, they recognize the right of others to have different beliefs.

d) Churches- are formal organizations that tend to see themselves, and are seen by society, as the primary and legitimate religious institutions. Ernst Troeltsch (1931) defined a **church** as a type of religious organization that is well integrated into the larger society. The term can be broadly applied to formal religious organizations, including temples and mosques.

Characteristics of churches

- have well-established rules and regulations
- Churches have a formal bureaucratic structure
- expect leaders to be formally trained and ordained
- Though concerned with the sacred, a church accepts the ways of the profane (secular) world.
- Favor abstract moral standards ("Do unto others as you would have them do unto you") over specific rules for day-to-day living.
- A new phenomenon for churches is the development of *mega churches*—those with memberships numbering into the thousands. These are increasingly common. Not only do mega churches have huge attendance but they also may broadcast on huge screens, possibly even televising church services.
- Rather than being recruited from the outside by fervent, personal evangelism, most new members now come from within, from children born to existing members.

e) Ecclesia- An ecclesia (plural, *ecclesiae*) is a religious organization that claims to include most or all members of a society and is recognized as the national or official religion e.g. indigenous religion and Christianity in Zimbabwe

Characteristics of ecclesiae

- Membership is by birth rather than conscious decision. There is no recruitment of members, for citizenship makes everyone a member.
- Generally, ecclesiae are conservative, in that they do not challenge the leaders of a secular government.
- The government and religion work together to try to shape society. The political and religious institutions often act in harmony and reinforce each other's power in their relative spheres of influence.

Religious movements

- A religious movement is an association of people who join together to spread a new religion or to promote a new interpretation of an existing religion.

- Religious movements are larger than sects and less exclusivist in their membership - although like churches and sects, movements and sects (or cults) are not always clearly distinct from one another. In fact, all sects and cults can be classified as religious movements (Giddens 2009)
- Religious movements tend to pass through certain definite phases of development.
- In the first phase, the movement usually derives its life and cohesion from a powerful leader. Max Weber classified such leaders as *charismatic* - that is, having inspirational qualities capable of capturing the imagination and devotion of a mass of followers. Charismatic leaders in Weber's formulation could include political as well as religious figures - for example, Jesus and Muhammad.)
- The leaders of religious movements are usually critical of the religious establishment and seek to proclaim a new message.
- In their early years, religious movements are fluid; they do not have an established authority system. Their members are normally in direct contact with the charismatic leader, and together they spread the new teachings
- The second phase of development occurs following the death of the leader. Rarely does a new charismatic leader arise from the masses, so this phase is crucial.
- The movement is now faced with what Weber termed the 'routinization of charisma'. To survive, it has to create formalized rules and procedures, since it can no longer depend on the central role of the leader in organizing the followers.
- Many movements fade away when their leaders die or lose their influence. A movement that survives and takes on a permanent character becomes a church. In other words, it becomes a formal organization of believers with an established authority system and established symbols and rituals.

The impact and influence of religious movements in Zimbabwe

- Abandonment of the faith. Some people can be led to abandon their faith by NRMs through following the charismatic leader who may end up putting himself instead of God at the center of worship
- Some engage extreme breaking of the law like abusing women and girl children e.g. The News Day (May 31 2014) writes " according to reports, Apostolic Christian Council of Zimbabwe (ACCZ)president Johannes Ndanga , in the company of anti-riot police, had gone to the Madzibaba Ishmael-led shrine in Budiriro (Johane Masowe ye Chishanu) seeking to enforce a ban on the church for alleged abuse of women and children". Nine anti-riot police officers , two ZBC staffers were attacked and officials from ACCZ. The church has been accused of denying children's educational rights and allegations of fathers allowed to inspect their daughters' virginity using their fingers
- Proselytism whereby these movements violate the rights of other believers to religious freedom. They say things which are not true of others
- They entice vulnerable people like young people , the poor and the ignorant through false promises and prophesies for them to join their movement e.g. the cult " Mudzimu Unoyera" which trapped children in Guruve
- Isolation of the religious movement group from the 'unclean' society increases abuses in isolated places.

Religion and culture in the society

- Religion constitute the non-material culture
- Religion is culturally determined. e.g. Indigenous religion is heavily linked to the culture of Zimbabwe for instance the agrarian nature of our indigenous culture promotes polygamy

- Celebration of some feasts and festivals like the new moon in Indigenous religion is linked to the indigenous culture
- Religion also work hand in hand with culture through upholding Mores like not stealing, murder. In Christianity the Bible teaches people not to take such deviant behavior
- However religion and culture at times clash:
  - Christianity as a religion prohibits polygamy as one of indigenous Zimbabwean culture which was practiced to increase workforce e.g. missionaries banned the practice
  - Ancestral link between the living and the dead through libations and offerings have been undermined by Christianity
  - Use of animals' blood in sacrifices is regarded as idolatry in Christian religion circles
  - Some cults, sects and denominations allow wearing trousers among women, a contradiction of indigenous Zimbabwean culture
  - Worshipping in sacred mountains have become a common phenomenon of most Christians
  - Baptizing people in sacred pools and rivers
  - Indigenous culture worship Mudzimu (spirit of the dead ancestors) but Christianity say there is Holy spirit not spirit of the dead people

Religion and the education institution

- Educational institutions serve as agencies of religion through teaching of religion as a subject
- Education integrates various diversified religious sects and denominations into one body of believers e.g. it integrates the different subcultural groups into a common culture of shared beliefs and values
- Informal or unconscious education make people learn through observations, imitation
- Educational needs of the society include transmission of social heritage, new ideas, skills and values including religious values

Religion and the family institution

- Family provides religious socialization e.g. on which religion to follow
- It is also mandated with instilling religious values e.g. respecting parents
- Families also discipline children and make them religiously compliant

Importance of religion to society

- **Group integration and unity**- religion unites members of society. It serves as a form of cementing element that bind people together into an integrated social group. During crisis religion provides a rallying point for members of a society by offering them hope for tomorrow e.g. AFM and PHD ministries offer safety nets to the poor in form of food handouts and social support like paying fees for their children.
- **The provision of meaning**-religion provides doctrines that give meaning and hope to life. religion provides answers to misfortune e.g. death is associated with various interpretations in IR for instance witchcraft, angered spirits. In Christianity the bible provides answers to challenges
- **Provision of emotional** and **psychological support to members in the society** – religion provides emotional support to the members of society during events such as death, marriages. In marriage for example, religious sects provide financial support to the wedding couple e.g. ZAOGA all members of the church pledge material goods to help the wedding pair
- **Social Control**- Religion not only provides guidelines for everyday life but also sets limits on people's behaviors. Most norms of a religious group apply only to its members, but

nonmembers also feel a spillover. Religious teachings, for example, are incorporated into criminal law. e.g. laws against adultery, stealing, murder

- **Guidelines for Everyday Life.** The teachings of religion are not all abstractions. They also provide practical guidelines for everyday life. For example, four of the ten commandments delivered by Moses to the Israelites concern God, but the other six contain instructions for getting along with others, from how to avoid problems with parents and neighbors to warnings about lying, stealing, and having affairs.

Religion and social change

- **Social change** is the alteration of patterns of culture, social structure and social behavior over time. It is also the transformation of culture and social organization/structure over time
- Religion may be a factor that impedes social change, or it may help to produce it. Another possibility is that religion itself has no influence on changes in society, but there is nevertheless a causal relationship between the two. From this point of view it is social change in society as a whole that leads to changes in religion.
- Functionalists and Marxists have generally dismissed the possibility that religion can cause changes in society. They believe that religion acts as a conservative force and that it is changes in society that shape religion not vice versa.
- Religion can be the conservative force portrayed by Karl Marx. But at some points in history, as Max Weber (1958, orig. 1904–05) explained, religion has promoted dramatic social change.

How society can change religion (conservatism)

- Functionalists have claimed that religion acts in preventing change and maintaining the status quo because it promotes integration and social solidarity. From a functionalist perspective religion provides shared beliefs, norms and values, and helps individuals to cope with stresses which might disrupt social life. In these ways it facilitates the continued existence of society in its present form.
- Talcott Parsons (1937) believed that as society developed, religion lost some of its functions. Religion is part of the cultural system, so cultural change affect religion
- Marx saw religion maintaining the status quo in the interests of the ruling class rather than those of society as a whole. Religion is the 'opium of the people', it controls working class by preventing them from refusing to be exploited thereby creating a docile workforce which cannot challenge for change
- Marx believed a change in the infrastructure of society would lead to changes in the superstructure, including religion. This Marx anticipated that when a classless society was established, religion would disappear (Marx and Engels 1957)
- Marxists also believe that religion promises workers a better, fairer life after death. People can bear their troubles on earth if they know that they will be rewarded in heaven
- Religion makes people believe that society was created by God; to change it is to go against the work of God
- Supporters of the secularization theory think that industrialization has led to profound changes that have progressively reduced the importance of religion in society
- Changes in the advent of postmodernism (argument that modern societies are so saturated by the mass media that reality loses its meaning. People are no longer participants in their own lives but observers of what the media has turned into 'spectacles') and globalization have produced changes in religion

How religion can promote social change

- **Max Weber: The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism**
  - Max Weber disagreed strongly with the conflict perspective that religion merely reflects and legitimates the social order and that it impedes social change by encouraging people to focus on the afterlife. In contrast, Weber said that religion's focus on the afterlife is a source of profound social change.
  - He looked at the role the of the strict version of Protestantism (from the word "protesting") known as Calvinism in bringing about industrialization. **Calvinism** is the ascetic strand of Protestant thought based on the teachings of the French reformer John Calvin (1509–64). **Asceticism** is an act of living without physical pleasures and comforts especially for religious reasons.
  - In the 18th century Calvinists stressed working hard, saving money and not engaging in frivolous pursuits. Weber called this self-denying approach to life the Protestant ethic.
  - **Protestant ethic** refer to Weber's term to describe a self-denying, highly moral life accompanied by hard work and frugality. Money was not for selfish spending or even for sharing with the poor, whose plight they saw as a mark of God's rejection. As agents of God's work on Earth, Calvinists believed that they best fulfilled their "calling" by reinvesting profits and achieving ever-greater success in the process.
  - Weber called this new approach to work and money the spirit of capitalism. **Spirit of capitalism** refer to Weber's term for the desire to accumulate capital—not to spend it, but as an end in itself—and to constantly reinvest it
  - When new machinery was being invented in the 18th century, the Calvinists were some of the few people who had spare capital savings to finance the building of the machines and factories.
  - As a result of their thrift, Industrialization based on capitalism first occurred in Britain. If the values of Calvinism had not led to there being spare capital available, industrialization may not have occurred
  - So for weber, religion can bring about social and economic change
- **Liberation Theology**- the use of a church in a political effort to eliminate poverty, discrimination, and other forms of injustice from a secular society.
  - Sometimes the clergy can be found in the forefront of social change. In Zimbabwe some church leaders have been known for challenging the ruling government to respect human rights.
  - Activists associated with liberation theology believe that organized religion has a moral responsibility to take a strong public stand against the oppression of the poor, racial and ethnic minorities, and women (Christian Smith 1991).
  - Their message is simple: Social oppression runs counter to Christian morality, so as a matter of faith and justice, Christians must promote greater social equality

Secularization

- **Secularization** is the process whereby religious thinking, practice and institutions loose social significance (Wilson 1966). This is an example of how changes in society can influence religion. It refers to the declining significance of religion in society (process of religious decline)

- Henslin (2012) view the term secularization as the process by which worldly affairs replace spiritual interests. (The term secular means "belonging to the world and its affairs.")
- Marx, Durkheim and Weber all theorized that a process of secularization was bound to occur as societies modernized and became more reliant on science and technology to control and explain the social world
- There is disagreement between supporter of the thesis – who agree with sociology's founding fathers and see religion as diminishing in power and importance in the modern world – and opponents of the concept, who argue that religion remains a significant force, albeit often in new and unfamiliar forms (Giddens :2009).
- A global perspective shows that this thesis holds for the countries of Western Europe, where most measures of religiosity have declined and are now low. But the United States—the richest country of all—is an exception, a nation in which, for now at least, religion remains quite strong(Macionis 2012). **Religiosity** is the intensity and consistency of practice of a person's (or group's) faith.
- Secularization was as a result of the Industrial Revolution and the impact of science on the modern world. The effects of secularization are that there is:
  - A decreased in the membership of religious organizations.
  - A decline in the social, influence wealth and prestige of religious organizations.
  - A decline in the role played by religious values beliefs in people's lives.

The secularization debate:

Proponents of secularization thesis

- *Auguste Comte (1986*)- the French functionalist believed that human history passed through three stages
  1. **Theological stage** whereby religious and superstitious beliefs would be dominant
  2. **Metaphysical stage** whereby religious and superstitious beliefs decline and philosophy become more dominant
  3. **Positive stage** whereby science dominate human thinking and direct human behavior. Religious beliefs would disappear
- *Durkheim* – he anticipated that religion would be of declining social significance in an industrial society in which there was a highly specialized division of labor, religion would lose some of its importance as a force for integrating society
  - Social solidarity would increasingly be provided by the education system rather than the sort of religious rituals associated with the more simple societies (Haralambos and Holborn 5th ed)
- *Weber*- anticipated a progressive reduction in the importance of religion. He thought rationalization would gradually erode religious influence. **Rationalization** is a belief that modern society should be built around logic and efficiency rather than morality or tradition. The unquestioned truths of an earlier time are challenged by rational thinking. In short, said Weber, modern society turns away from the gods just as it turns away from the past.
- *Marx*- did not believe that industrial capitalism as such would herald the decline of religion but he did believe that it would set in motion a chain of events that would eventually lead to its disappearance (Marx 1950)

- Religion according to Marx, was needed to legitimate inequality in class societies but capitalism would eventually be replaced by classless communism and religion would cease to have any social purpose

➢ *Bryan Wilson* (1966) suggested the following causes of secularization:

1. Growth of science and rational thought have rejected supernatural explanation of the world
2. The weakening of traditional values which stressed that church attendance was necessary in order to be respectable
3. The weakening of the family so that children are less likely to attend church with their parents and to be socialized into church attendance
4. The influence of new political and social philosophes which criticize the importance and role of the church
5. Religion has been weakened by the growth of material values. Religion stresses the importance of good behavior and that a person ought to be measured by how good he or she is. Today people are measured far more by what they possess

Opponents of the secularization thesis

➢ *Emergence of New religious movements*-The enduring popularity of new religious movements presents a challenge to the secularization thesis. Opponents of the thesis point to the diversity and dynamism of new religious movements and argue that religion and spirituality remain a central facet of modern life. As traditional religions lose their hold, religion is not disappearing, but is being channeled in new directions.

- Not all scholars agree, however. Proponents of the idea of secularization point out that:
  - ❖ These movements remain peripheral to society as a whole, even if they make a profound impact on the lives of their individual followers.
  - ❖ New religious movements are fragmented and relatively unorganized;
  - ❖ They also suffer from high turnover rates as people are attracted to a movement for some time and then move on to something new.
  - ❖ Compared to a serious religious commitment, they argue, participation in a new religious movement appears little more than a hobby or lifestyle choice.
- *Jaffrey Hadden*- the idea that religion would shrink and eventually vanish was a product the social and cultural milieu of its time, fitting the evolutionary functional model of modernization. He suggest that secularization is not happening as predicted. He argues that that those who claim that secularization has occurred have exaggerated and romanticized the depth of practices in the European past and also simultaneously underestimated the power and popularity of religious movements in the past era
- *The theory of religious markets*- vigorous competition between religious denominations has a positive effect on religious involvement. The explanation why religion flourishes in some places while languishing in others rests upon the energies and activities of religious leaders and organizations. The more churches, denominations, creeds and sects compete in a local community, the theory assumes, the harder rival leaders need to strive to maintain their congregants. Therefore religion will remain intact

➢ The role of religion in different modern societies varies considerably. It is possible that secularization is a feature of the development of some modern societies but not to others. Societies have not modernized the same way

- Some advocates of the *theory of postmodernism* argue that in moving beyond modernity societies will also move beyond the secular. Faith and religion will be rediscovered in a world in which the achievement of science and rationality have less appeal than they once had.

Theories of Religion

1. The functionalist perspective of religion

- The functionalist analysis of religion is primarily concerned with the contribution religion makes to meeting the functional pre-requisites or basic needs of society. From this perspective, society requires a certain degree of social solidarity, value consensus, and harmony and integration between its parts.
- The function of religion is the contribution it makes to meet such functional pre-requisites, for example, its contribution to social solidarity.

a) ***Emile Durkheim*** (1976 [1912]) posed just such questions and suggested that the most productive method for discovering the essential character of religion was to investigate it in its simplest form, in small-scale, traditional societies. Hence the title of his classic study, *The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life*, which is one of the most influential studies in the sociology of religion.

- His work stressed that religion performs a number of beneficial functions for society including:
  - **Social cohesion-** religion strengthens the basic beliefs and values of a society, giving them a degree of sacredness that places them above any possible questioning or doubt. Religion unites people through shared symbolism, values, and norms. Religious thought and ritual establish rules of fair play, organizing our social life
  - **Sense of belonging-** religion provides an individual with a sense of belonging. As a church member he/she feels bond to society and this will motivate the person to continue as a conforming, contented member of that society. Durkheim believed that religion binds individuals to the society in which they live by establishing what he called a **collective consciousness**, the body of beliefs common to a community or society that gives people a sense of belonging
  - **Sense of purpose and meaning-**religion helps to explain the purpose of life (why are we here?) and helps to make sense of the uncertainty of life
  - **Moral guidelines-** religious values give each individual a set of guidelines to measure behavior
  - **Promoting social control-** Every society uses religious ideas to promote conformity. By defining God as a "judge," many religions encourage people to obey cultural norms.

- **Totemism**

- Emile Durkheim uses the term " Totemism" to describe the simplest form and the most basic form of the religion of the Aborigines of Australia. Their society is divided into several clans. The clan is like a large extended family with its members sharing certain duties and obligations. Clan members have the duty to aid each other. They join together to mourn the death of one of their number and to revenge a member who has been wronged by someone from another clan .It is a sacred symbol. In some sense the totem is

the outward and visible form of god. Emile Durkhem argued that if the totem is at once the symbol of god and of the society, it
logically stands to suggest that in worshipping god, people are in fact worshipping society. Society is the real object of religious veneration. (Haralambos 5th ed).

- ❖ A 'totem' was originally an animal or plant taken as having particular symbolic significance for a group. It is a sacred object, regarded with veneration and surrounded by various ritual activities.
- ❖ Durkheim defines religion in terms of a distinction between the sacred and the profane. Sacred objects and symbols, he holds, are treated as apart from the routine aspects of existence, which are the realm of the profane. Eating the totemic animal or plant, except on special ceremonial occasions, is usually forbidden, and as a sacred object the totem is believed to have divine properties which separate it completely from other animals that might be hunted, or crops gathered and consumed.

Criticisms of Durkheim

- ➢ Some anthropologists have argued that Durkheim is not justified in seeing Totemism as a religion. Most sociologists believe that Durkheim has overstated his case whilst agreeing that religion is important for promoting social solidarity and reinforcing social values, they would not support the view that religion is the worship of society.
- ➢ Durkheim' s views on religion are more relevant to small non- literate societies where there is a close integration of culture and social institutions, where work, leisure, education and family life tend to merge and where members share a common belief and value system. They are
less relevant to modern societies, which have any subcultures, social and ethnic groups, specialized. Organizations and a range of religious beliefs, practices and institutions.

b) *Bronislaw Malinowski*

- ➢ Like Durkheim, Malinowski sees religion as reinforcing social norms and values and promoting social solidarity
- ➢ Unlike Durkheim however, he does not see religion as reflecting society as a whole, nor does he see religious ritual as the worship of society itself
- ➢ He pointed out that religion is concerned with situations of emotional stress that threaten social solidarity
- ➢ He also pointed out that religion deals with the problem of death in the following manner:
  - A funeral ceremony expresses the belief in immortality which denies he fact of death and also comforts the bereaved
  - Other mourners support the bereaved by their presence at the ceremony
  - The comfort and support check the emotions which death produces and control the stress and anxiety that might disrupt the society
  - This expression of social solidarity reintegrates society
- ➢ His main argument is that religion promotes social solidarity by dealing with situation of emotional stress that threaten the stability of society

c) *Talcott Parsons*

- ➢ Religion is part of the cultural system. As such religious beliefs provide guidelines for human action and standards against which people's conduct can be evaluated

- In a Christian society, the Ten Commandments operate in this way. They demonstrate how many of the norms of the social system can be integrated by religious beliefs e.g the commandment "thou shall not kill" integrates such diverse norms:
  - The ways of driving a car
  - To settle an argument
  - Prohibiting manslaughter, murder and euthanasia
- However these norms are all based on the same religious commandment
- By establishing general principles and moral beliefs, religion helps to provide the consensus which parsons believes is necessary for order and stability in the society
- Parsons like Malinowski, sees religion addressed to particular problems which occur in all societies. He argues that in everyday life, people go about their business without particular strain.
- However, if life were like always like that, religion would certainly not have the significance that it does. Life does not always follow this smooth pattern. The problems, which disrupt life, fall into two categories.
  - Individuals are hit by events which they cannot foresee, and prepare for, or control or both. One such event is death, particularly premature death. Like Malinowski, and for similar reasons, Parsons see religion as a mechanism for adjustment to such events and as a means for restoring the normal pattern of life.
  - The second problem area is that of uncertainty. This refers to attempts in which a great of effort and skill have been invested, but where unknown or uncontrollable factors can threaten a successful outcome. An example is humanity's inability to predict or control the effect of weather upon agriculture.
- Again, following Malinowski, Parsons argues that religion provides a means of adjusting and coming to terms with such situations through rituals which at as a tonic to self – confidence. In this way religion maintains social stability by allaying the tension and frustration which could disrupt social order.
- **Religion and meaning**-as part of the cultural system, religious beliefs give meaning to life
  - Parsons argues that one of the major functions of religion is to "make sense" of all experiences, no matter how meaningless or contradictory they appear. A good example of this is the question of suffering: "why must men endure deprivation and pain?" Religion provides a range of answers
    - ❖ Suffering is imposed by God to test a person's faith
    - ❖ It is a punishment for sins
    - ❖ Suffering with fortitude will bring its reward in heaven
  - Suffering thus becomes meaningful

2. The Marxist perspective of religion

- ***Religion as 'the opium of the people'***
  - In Marx's words "Religion is the sign of the oppressed creature, the sentiment of a heartless world and the soul of soulless conditions. It is the opium of the oppressed people." (Marx in Bottomore and Rubel 1963). By this statement, Marx meant that oppressed workers find escape in religion. For them, religion is like a drug that helps them to forget their misery. By diverting their thoughts toward future happiness in an afterlife,

religion takes their eyes off their suffering in this world, reducing the possibility that they will rebel against their oppressors.

- Religion acts as an opiate to dull the pain produced by oppression.
- It does nothing to solve the problem: It is simply a misguided attempt to make life more bearable and therefore dilutes demands for change.
- As such, religion merely stupefies its adherents rather than bringing them true happiness and fulfillment.
- Religion can dull the pain of oppression in the following ways:
  - ❖ It promises a paradise of eternal bliss in life after death. Engels argues that the appeal of Christianity to oppressed classes lies in its promise of salvation from bondage and misery in the afterlife.
  - ❖ Religion makes poverty more tolerate by offering a reward for suffering and promising redress for justice in the afterlife e.g the Bible says " it is easier for a camel to pass through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of heaven"
  - ❖ Religion can offer the hope of supernatural intervention to solve the problems on earth. Members of the Jehovah's Witnesses live in anticipation of the day when the supernatural powers will descend from on high and create heaven on earth. Anticipation of this future can make the present more acceptable.
  - ❖ Religion often justifies the social order and a position within it. God can be seen as ordaining the social structure.

➢ ***Religion legitimizes Social Inequalities***

- Religion, proclaimed Karl Marx, serves ruling elites by legitimizing the status quo and diverting people's attention from social inequities.
- Religion teaches that the existing social arrangements of a society represent what God desires. For example, during the Middle Ages, Christian theologians decreed the *divine right of kings*. This doctrine meant that God determined who would become king and set him on the throne. The king ruled in God's place, and it was the duty of a king's subjects to be loyal to him (and to pay their taxes). To disobey the king was to disobey God.
- From a Marxist view point, religion does not simply cushion the effects of oppression, it is also an instrument of that oppression.

➢ ***Religion as a form social control***

- It acts as a mechanism of social control maintaining the existing system of exploitation and reinforcing class relationships. Put simply, it keeps people in their place.
- To Marx, religion is a form of *false consciousness* because it prevents people from rising up against oppression. He called religion the "opiate of the people" because it encourages passivity and acceptance.
- Marx saw religion as supporting the status quo and being inherently conservative (that is, resisting change and preserving the existing social order).

➢ ***Religion in a communist society***

- In Marx's vision of the ideal society, the communist utopia religion will not exist. Some of the reasons include:

❖ The means of production will be communally owned, which results in disappearance of social classes

- ❖ Members of the society will be controlling their own destinies and work together for the common good
- ❖ There will be no more ruling class ideology and false consciousness which make people seek solace in religion. From a Marxist perspective most religious movements originate in oppressed classes. Their social conditions provide the most fertile ground for the growth of new religious. Thus Engels argues that " Christianity was originally a movement of oppressed people, it first appeared as the religion of slaves and emancipated slaves of poor people deprived of all rights, or peoples subjugated or dispersed by Rome."

3. The symbolic interactionist perspective of religion

- ➢ To interactionists, beliefs and experiences are not sacred unless individuals in a society regard them as sacred. The Star of David in Judaism, the cross in Christianity, and the crescent and star in Islam are examples of sacred symbols. Interactionists are interested in what these symbols communicate.
- ➢ From a symbolic-interaction point of view, religion (like all of society) is socially constructed (although perhaps with divine inspiration).
- ➢ Through various rituals—from daily prayers to annual religious observances such as Easter, Passover, or Ramadan—people sharpen the distinction between the sacred and the profane
- ➢ Symbolic interactionists insist that religion consist of a body of symbols used by the society to obtain meaning to the unexplained things of life. symbols used in religion include objects such as stones (which is an important healing medium among the white garmented churches in Zimbabwe, mostly followers of Johanne Masowe sect). Among the Roman catholics, the rosary is a sacred object
- ➢ symbolic interaction theory states that people act toward things on the basis of the meaning things have for them and that those meanings emerge through social interaction e.g. seen from outside the faith, religious practices (kneeling in church, wearing a yarmulke, making a pilgrimage to Mecca, or chanting) may seem peculiar or different, but within the faith, these and other religious practices carry meaning—meaning that is deeply important to religious believers.
- ➢ Symbolic interaction theory can also help one understand how people become religious, a process sociologists call *religious socialization*.(apply Cooley and Mead)

4. The feminist perspective of religion

- ➢ It focuses specifically on gender inequality. In terms of religion, feminist theorists assert that, although women are typically the ones to socialize children into a religion, they have traditionally held very few positions of power within religions.
- ➢ A few religions and religious denominations are more gender equal, but male dominance remains the norm of most.
- ➢ Indeed, most faiths have a long tradition of exclusively male spiritual leadership. Furthermore, because most religions are patriarchal, they tend to reinforce men's dominance in secular as well as spiritual matters.
- ➢ The Adam and Eve account of creation found in Genesis, the first book of the Old Testament, is an example of a religious belief which make women treated as tempters who lead men into sin. Religion therefore act as an instrument of women's subordination

TOPIC 6: EDUCATION

- **Education** is a social institution through which a society's children are taught basic academic knowledge, learning skills, and cultural norms. Macionis (2012) views it as the social institution through which society provides its members with important knowledge, including basic facts, job skills, and cultural norms and values.
- Education can also be defined as a social institution, which enables and promotes the acquisition of skills, knowledge and the broadening of personal horizons (Giddens 2009).It can also be viewed as a formal system of teaching knowledge, values, and skills (Henslin 2012)
- However, there is a difference between education and schooling. Education can take place in many social settings. **Schooling** on the other hand, refers to the formal process through which certain types of knowledge and skills are delivered, normally via a predesigned curriculum in specialized settings: schools. Schooling in most countries is typically divided into stages such as those in primary and secondary schools, and in many societies is a mandatory requirement for all young people up to a specified age
- Education, like the family, is a cultural universal. As such it is an important aspect of socialization

Types of Education

1. **Formal education or learning** describes the learning of academic facts and concepts through a *formal curriculum*

- It consist of clearly defined skills or bodies of knowledge taught in an organized manner(the lesson) which can be graded and tested (examinations) after a set period (the length of the course) e.g subjects at school like mathematics, history are formal learning
- Formal learning is the official reason for the existence of schools

Characteristics of formal education

(a) It is pre-determined and pre planned.
(b) It is time bound and regulated by routine.
(c) It is space bound *i.e.*, institutional.
(d) It is age bound.
(e) It follows systematic curriculum.
(f) It is imparted by qualified teachers.
(g) It observes strict discipline
(h) It is methodical in nature.

2. **Informal education or learning** describes learning about cultural values, norms, and expected behaviors by participating in a society.

- This type of learning occurs both through the formal education system and at home. It is part of the socialization process.
- Through informal education, we learn how to dress for different occasions, how to perform regular life routines like shopping for and preparing food, and how to keep our bodies clean.
- It is not organized or examined

- It is learned in our daily lives through interaction with other people and through the mass media. The most people who influence informal learning are family, the peer group and especially friends and teachers

Formal and informal learning: The hidden curriculum

- Formal learning may occur in the home e.g where a mother teaches her child to bake a cake or repair a car; while in school informal learning takes place alongside formal learning. A sociology lesson maybe about Ageism. Through the lesson the learner may be socialized informally to expect certain patterns of behavior from the elderly
- All things that the pupils learn at school which are not officially part of the lessons are known as the **hidden curriculum**
- The term is used because all the lessons that form the typical school timetable are collectively known as the **formal curriculum**

Examples of the hidden curriculum

- Gender roles can be learnt through the actions of teachers in responding to girls and boys differently and expecting different forms of behavior from them
- Racial differences are learnt partly through content of books e.g. very few books, if any, studied at school have a black heroine or hero
- Class differences can also be learnt through hidden curriculum. Research by Sharpe and green indicates that teachers are more sympathetic towards middle class children and find it easier to relate to them, possibly because teachers come from middle class backgrounds themselves
- Steaming and examinations prepare children for the inequality of later life when some groups take the better jobs with higher prestige and better rates of pay. Children come to regard it as natural that people are graded

Characteristics of informal education

(a) It is incidental and spontaneous.
(b) It is not pre planned and deliberate.
(c) It is not confined to any institution.
(d) There is no prescribed syllabus and time table.
(e) It is not time bound and age bound.
(f) There are many agencies of informal education.
(g) It is also known as out of school education.

3. **Non-formal education:** Non-formal education is any organized systematic educational activity carried outside the framework of the established formal system. Non-formal education is provided at the convenient place, time and level of understanding or mental growth of children and adult.

Characteristics of non-formal education

(a) Non-formal education is open ended and non-competitive.
(b) Non-formal education is structured and planned but outside the sphere of formal education.
(c) It is consciously and deliberately organized and implemented.

(d) It is programmed to serve the need of the homogeneous groups.
(e) It possesses flexibility in design of the curriculum and process and evaluation.
(f) In non-formal education teacher pupil relationship is much more intimate.
(g) Attendance in non-formal education is voluntary.
(h) In non-formal education many students are working persons

Functions of education

Manifest functions of education-the basic and obvious functions of education

- According to Swift (1969) there are at least four manifest functions of education in society
  1. Inculcation of values and standards of the society
  2. Maintenance of social solidarity by developing in children a sense of belonging to the society together with a commitment to its way of life, as they understand it
  3. Transmission of knowledge, which comprises the social heritage
  4. Development of new knowledge
- Other manifest functions of education include:
  - Provision of literacy and numeracy and specialized training for occupational competence leading to personal fulfillment and social contribution
  - The presentation and transmission of culture from one generation to another
  - The development of individual's ability for rational thinking
  - Expansion of student's intellectual horizons
  - Education is an agent of upward social mobility (the movement of people between positions in a system of social stratification) in society
  - It is an agent of socio-cultural change and reform

Latent functions of education- functions which are not obvious

- Swift (1969) identified some of these functions as following:
  - It is a free baby-sitting service, separating children from their parents for regular and reasonably prolonged periods of the day and year
  - It provides opportunities for children to become acquitted with a wider and more diverse circle of friends than they would otherwise reach
  - It is a useful marriage market because young adults sometimes choose their mates from amongst their educational peers
  - It is also a means by which the supply of labor is reduced
- The institution of education via schools is a significant agent of socialization. i.e. inculcation of values and attitudes acceptable to the society

Educational Policies in Zimbabwe

Colonial education Policies

- Missionary schools provided education for indigenous population that focused on agricultural production and industrial development e.g. carpentry and building. N.J Atkinson claims that in order to control the local population, the British South Africa

Company limited education and censored knowledge in schools. Missionaries initially educated Zimbabweans and not government

- Eurocentric education system which reinforced the superiority of white settlers
- Funding secondary school was also disproportionately offered to Europeans rather than Africans. In the 1970s, only 43.5% of African children attended school, while only 3.9% of these children enrolled in secondary school
- Division of the education system between African and European schools. The education system further split into government schools, community schools and private schools
  - Government schools were split into three divisions called group A, B and C.
  - White students historically attended Group A schools that offered highly trained teachers and quality education. These schools were located in white suburbs that denied housing opportunities for Africans
  - Group B schools required a low fee payment and C schools did not require a fee beyond educational materials. Both were available only for African students. These groups had less resources, funding and qualified faculty compared to group A schools
- Bottleneck system. Maravanyika O.E is of the view that there were bottlenecks in African education between grades and between primary and secondary school. Such bottlenecks did not exist in European schools. In secondary schools, only 12 ½ %of the primary school leavers would get places in academic secondary schools. Another 37 ½ % were expected to register in vocational secondary schools, and the rest (50%) were not accounted for in the formal school system.
- Division of the secondary curriculum into F1 and F2. Those who struggled academically were put into F2 schools which concentrated on vocational education like carpentry, metal work, building etc. this was a category where Africans were sent and they could not proceed to university. Those whose were academically gifted were put into F1 schools which was for whites which allowed them to go to universities

Post-colonial education Policies

- The government expanded teacher training facilities from nine colleges to thirteen. It also introduced the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC), where untrained teachers were brought to a college fol. he first and last sixteen weeks of a four-year program. In between, they were taught through distance education methods and had field tutors visiting them in their schools.
- The Education Transition Fund (ETF) of 2009 which was launched to improve the quality of education by distributing education materials.
- Upper Tops-secondary schools accommodated at primary schools
- Satellite school programme- sub schools of a main established school to cater for those learners who travel long distances. They will be registered under the name of the main school
- Affirmative action policy in colleges and universities to cater for the girl child e.g. using different levels of A level points for boys and girls to enter university, the policy will favor the girl child
- Localization of exams through creation of ZIMSEC in 1996 to cut exam costs

- Scholarship programme (Presidential scholarship) which sponsors those who are disadvantaged to afford a degree even outside the country
- Educational grants e.g. Basic Education Assistance Module-BEAM which pay tuition fees to disadvantaged children in secondary schools
- Computerization of education. This has enabled schools to teach computer sciences as a subject
- Civic education (national pledge). This enables learners to appreciate their country and its resources. It also instills patriotism
- Science programmes e.g. Science Technology Engineering and Mathematics-STEM which incentives learners to do science subjects by promising them university scholarships and also taking them on international science visits e.g. the trip to Microsoft, Google, Facebook

Challenges to the Zimbabwean education system

- Access to quality education. UNICEF claims that only a third of schools are considered to be in "good condition". Schools facecapacity challenges, including double session schooling or "hot seating" and overcrowded classrooms
- Funding. Education is not completely free in Zimbabwe. Programs like BEAM pay for tuition and other basic fees, but only serves less than half of the target population
- Students with disabilities. Teachers and schools are not equipped to educate and account for students with disabilities
- Gender differences. Females are increasingly more likely to drop out than their male peers in secondary school due to early marriages, costs and gender based violence. Gudhlanga et al claims that gender stereotyping is also prevalent in Zimbabwean education textbooks e.g. English Language textbooks are written from male perspectives and leave out important female leaders
- Teachers. In the first decade of the 21st century, 45 000 out of 100 000 teachers left the profession due to poor salaries, poor working conditions, political victimization and violence. The yearlong strike of 2008-09 by teachers left nearly 94% of all rural schools closing and attendance fell from 80% to 20%
- Textbooks. In 2008 the National Education Advisory Board states that 20% of students did not have textbooks for core subjects and the student to book ratio was 10:1

Educational policies and national building

- STEM promote innovation and invention as learners will be applying their engineering skills to build infrastructure in the country
- Technological skills enable the nation to advance in terms of ICT usage which is necessary to attract investors
- Science studies promote discovery in the nation e.g. medicine for certain incurable diseases or new infectious diseases
- Mathematics enable the nation to solve the shortage of mathematics teachers in the education sector
- Localization of examinations through ZIMSEC reduce costs for a nation of importing expensive CAMBRIDGE exams which may require foreign currency

- BEAM and equal access to education policy enable children from poor families to access education thereby reducing inequality in the society. Potential in learners is also ignited which might lead them to undertake STEM subjects
- Presidential scholarships also assist the nation in having professionals who can plough back into the society after they have been assisted in acquiring their degrees
- Civic education through teaching the schools national pledge is crucial inculcating nationalism and patriotism in the learners
- Affirmative action policy in education help in including women in development issues. Women will be able to acquire the level of education same with men and therefore become examples to other women in the society. This also reduce gender stereotypes which may affect women's confidence building
- Teacher in-service and upgrading through ZINTEC and teacher capacity development enable teachers to be able to produce relevant and well educated learners who can initiate social and economic change
- However there are some challenges(some noted above)which may make education not able to bring nation building
    - There is brain drain
    - corruption

Educational Achievement

- It includes the degree of students' academic learning, chances and educational success. It is determined by intelligence and other social factors like race, class e.t.c. research has shown that the higher a child's parents are in the class structure the greater that child's chances of educational success

Differential educational achievement

- It is a sociological term given to a concept that disagrees with some of the functionalist views on education that an individual's academic success depends completely upon that person's IQ (intelligence quotient) and the effort they apply to their studies. Functionalists also believe that society works in a meritocratic system: that people work for what they achieve, and achieve what they deserve, according to their own merit and effort, i.e., they work hard to get the best jobs in later life
    - A person's IQ can be measured by dividing the mental age by his chronological age, and multiply by one hundred. So a person with a mental age of twelve but a real age of ten has an IQ of 120 (12/10x100)
- Some other sociologists do not concur with this idea. They think that other factors have a more prominent impact on one's education

Factors of differential educational achievement

1. **Intelligence**-Research findings have shown that some pupils do well in school because they are naturally intelligent. Out of the intelligence a child has about 80% is genetically endowed intelligence. In other words 80% of a person's intelligence is inherited from parents.

- Psychologists such as H. Eysenck argue that differences in educational attainment reflect the fact that individuals inherit their intelligence from their intelligence from their parents

in much the same way that a person inherits his facial features. He called this innate intelligence

- Most sociologists argue that although we inherit a degree of mental capacity from our parents, most of our intelligence is determined by our culture and our upbringing. In particular, they make the following points:
  - Intelligence varies from society to society. An intelligent person in one society maybe considered stupid in another
  - IQ scores vary overtime and a person can improve them with practice
  - IQ tests measure only the ability of the person tested to conform to the tester's idea of intelligence. This varies with class and background culture

2. **Family/home background**- in explaining why certain children, usually from the working class achieve poor academic results many sociologists point to three areas of disadvantage linked with the home background of working-class children
   a) **The values and behavior of child's family**-parents may have little interest in their children's education and may incline a child to a lack of enthusiasm for learning that may ensure his late failure
   b) **The form of language used in the home**- Basil Bernstein has suggested that parents pass on vocabulary and ability with language to their children. The more clearly parents reply to children's questions and explain things to them, the better the children will be in their use of language. Bernstein distinguishes between two codes of speech
   - **Elaborated**- where a wide vocabulary is used with the child and he is encouraged fully to explore his language potential. This code is most often found in middle class homes
   - **Restricted**- where the child is spoken to with a narrow range of vocabulary. This is more often found in working class homes

- The result is that middle class children are more likely to be adept at language when they attend school and this gives them a great advantage when speaking or writing

   c) **Physical conditions of the home**- Many children from poorer homes suffer physical deprivation which affects their school progress; e.g. undernourishment leads to a feeling of tiredness and an inability to concentrate. Damp and overcrowded homes cause illness and consequent absences from school
   d) **Family structure**- A child who was brought up by a single mother is assumed to not progress as well and becomes as successful as someone who was brought up by two parents. This can also be seen as an emotional barrier that deprives you from achieving well. For example, a child who has been brought up by a divorcee e.g. single mother, single father, would have a greater likelihood of suffering from depression, life of crime, neglect or even poverty/homelessness in comparison to one who was brought up in a happy home that did not undergo a loss of a parent through divorce or even bereavement
   e) **Family expectations**-Overprotection do not give children the independence they need to become responsible for themselves. Instead they tend to make decisions for their children and give them little or no opportunity to make their own choices.
   - Children may be given so much freedom that leads to disorganization and subsequently underachievement. Lack of discipline or routine in the home leads to disordered households which is often reflected in disorganization in the child' s school work leading to underachievement

3. **Social Class**-In general children who come from high-class backgrounds are likely to perform well in class. Apart from the fact that they have all the necessary material support from their families they are also familiar with what is taught in school. Their family backgrounds are conducive to high educational achievement.

- Children who come from middle class backgrounds or children whose parents are professionals are likely to be motivated by their parents. Middle class parents motivate their children by showing interests in their children's schoolwork.
- Sociologists have found a significant relationship, for example, between cultural capital and grades in school. Pierre Bourdieu defined **cultural capital** as noneconomic goods, such as family background and education, which are reflected in a knowledge of language and the arts. Those from the more well to-do classes (those with more cultural capital) are able to parlay their knowledge into higher grades, thereby reproducing their social position by being more competitive in school admissions and, eventually, in the labor market (Hill 2001; Treiman 2001). Students who benefit from more *cultural capital*— that is, those whose parents value schooling, read to their children, and encourage the development of imagination—perform better.
- Marxists believe that due to social class, in education only the ruling class values are transmitted. This means that working-class people find it difficult to connect with the education system. In this respect, according to this theory, many people from less affluent backgrounds are academically disadvantaged from the very start.

4. **The school:**

a) **Nature of teaching**- organized, interested teachers provide an excellent learning situation for children which impact positively on their educational achievement (the reverse is true).

- A rigid formal and inflexible curriculum and teaching methods do not allow children to satisfy their need for autonomy and do not help them to develop initiatives. This can reinforce or cause underachieving behavior.
- Schools maybe understaffed and teachers are made to teach subjects they were not trained for. In such cases the teacher's knowledge of the subject is very superficial. They lack confidence in presenting their lesson and therefore forbid any form of questioning or interruption during their lecture. This demotivates the learner and subsequently will become an underachievement.

b) **Labelling**- it is a term associated with placing a student into special education and assigning an eligibility category. Howard Becker used this term describing the way teachers apply labels on their pupils in terms of their ability, potential or behavior

- How a teacher acts towards a pupil can strongly influence his behavior in school and his attitudes towards his studies. If a teacher labels a pupil as a trouble maker or chatterbox then the teacher may act in a different manner towards him than towards a pupil he has labelled intelligent. The pupils then respond to the teacher's labels, either being discouraged or encouraged in their studies(more shall be discussed on interactionist theory of education)
- This labelling is a result of **teacher-expectancy effect** which is the impact that a teacher's expectations about a student's performance may have on the student's actual achievements.
- When pupils act the way teachers them to act it results in **Self-fulfilling prophecy**. This term, coined by sociologist Robert Merton (1949/1968), refers to a false assumption of

something that is going to happen but which then comes true simply because it was predicted. For example, if people believe an unfounded rumor that a credit union is going to fail because its officers have embezzled their money, they all rush to the credit union to demand their money. The prediction—although originally false—is now likely to come true.(Henslin 2012)

c) Streaming- it is the division pupils into teaching groups according to their general ability. It is also a form of labelling pupils

- According to those who support streaming its advantages are:
  - ❖ Pupils receive the correct level of teaching for their ability
  - ❖ The whole class can be taught at the same pace
- But others believe that streaming may create these problems:
  - ❖ Children adjust themselves to the general academic behavior patterns of that class
  - ❖ Children in lower streams feel failures compared to higher stream pupils. This leads to frustration, humiliation and behavioral problems
  - ❖ Teachers subconsciously look down upon lower stream pupils and may make less effort with them
- Predictably students who are in high streams seem to usually come from either high or middle class family backgrounds. They usually end up being academically successful, steadfast in morals and values of the social institution they are from. They have a propensity to create a pro-school subculture.

d) The peer group- generally, pupils split into two kinds of groups

- One which rejects the school and sees it as just a waste time. This group simply play around school making fun of teachers and pupils who want to pass their exams. Teachers generally view these pupils as bad and in need of strict control. Although these learners are likely to fail at school, there peer group attitude guaranteed this
- A second type may see the school as a fairly pleasant place. They will do all the work set and are generally cooperative. Teachers like and reward these pupils. Generally such a peer group achieve educational success because it is a positive one

e) Type of school- it can also be presumed that someone who attends a private school in contrast to a public city school, or some that receives extra tuition and attends a school that have a great resources and facilities has a greater prospect achieving well in future.

- In overcrowded classrooms, learners have little contact with teachers who are forced to adopt authoritarian rigid teaching methods based on repetition and regurgitation of facts. The learner's participation is very minimal or non –existent.
- Lack of facilities like classrooms, desks for learners, libraries and laboratories, textbooks and stationary makes teaching and learning difficult and ineffective. This leads to underachievement by the children.

5. The neighborhood-The absence of positive role models within the community contributed to the fact that learners did not see the value of education in the lives of those around them, hence education played little or no role in their success.

6. Gender

a) Parental socialization- parents have different expectations of their children. Boys are expected to be tougher and more boisterous, girls to be quieter and neater. This creates the basis the basis for differences in interests and attitudes

b) **Curriculum differences**-curriculum means the combination of subjects followed by school pupils
   - **Overt curriculum** (formal/official)-although schools have to offer girls and boys equal access to all courses, clear differences in choice emerge. Girls are less likely to choose to follow STEM and are more likely to take Home economics, languages, social studies. Therefore the official curriculum varies by gender
   - **The hidden curriculum**-Blackstone and Weinreich- Haste, two feminists argue that as a result of the attitude of parents and teachers, girls learn to "under achieve". By this they mean that sex stereotyping occurs in which teachers (and parents) know what sorts of jobs girls do and have been traditionally successful in and they counsel girls to follow courses which would lead to careers in these areas

c) **The wider culture**-females tend to have inferior status to males in society in general. There are clear gender roles expected of girls e.g. to be feminine
   - Girls tend to do more domestic chores than boys which consumes their time of studying
   - Media portray women as sex symbols, nurses and housewives. This leads to a lack of confidence in themselves and affect their career aspirations and studies

7. **Race**-the hidden curriculum through textbooks deny the fact that Africa has any history at all and concentrating on Western European history only. This can make students feel inferior.
   - The form of English spoken at home is often rejected by the school as incorrect, so the student has difficulties in expressing him/herself

<u>Relationship between education and social mobility</u>

- **Social mobility** signifies the movement of people between positions in a system of social stratification. It is the movement from one class or rank or status to another horizontally, vertically or downwards. The argument of mobility through education as suggested by functionalist theories depends on the validity of two general conditions: (1) Educational attainment must be used as a criterion of eventual class or status position, and (2) the level of educational attainment of individuals must not be influenced by the level of their family's class or status. Boudon (1976) calls these two conditions necessary for social mobility "meritocracy" and "equality of educational opportunity" respectively. It is important to note that social mobility exists only if both conditions are met and that each of them alone is a necessary but insufficient condition for social mobility.
- The link between education and social mobility is best seen in the developing, mid-income countries where the demand for highly educated and skilled labor force exceeds the supply. As a result, individuals with high education are highly sought after which in turn is expressed in higher wages and often also in higher social status regardless of the individual's socioeconomic background.
- According to S. Bogardus**:** " Social mobility is any change in social position, such as occupational changes where persons move up or down the occupational scale, or relation to office whereby a follower becomes a leader, or a leap from a low economic class to a high one, or vice-versa."
- Education is a very potent means of encouraging social mobility the Zimbabwean society. It has multidirectional influence in promoting social mobility. Education plays such an important role in following ways.

- **Employment**-education helps in preparing oneself employment ,which is an important aspect of social uplift meant
- **Improved status of women**-the popularity of education among women has considerably altered the social status of women. It has helped in raising their social position, status and achievement of high social prestige; which indicates upward social mobility of the women. e.g. involvement of women in politics in Zimbabwe
- **Respect, integrity and honor**-Persons with higher education and better employment are respected more in the society which improves their status and class. The people who receive more and more education achieve higher and higher social status. Few would question about a person's integrity when one has high academic qualifications.
- **Self-actualization**- is education that reveals the latent qualities and potentiates of man and enables him to understand 'Self 'and the environment surrounding him. e.g. education encourages self-discovery which changes the status of a person
- **Broadening of horizons**-education sharpens the intellect, widens the vision, and helps in the wholesome and balanced development of man. e.g. promotes entrepreneurship skills which improves the status of a person
- **Promotion at work**-occupational status is closely correlated with educational status. e.g. educational qualifications are mostly required in formal organizations for promotions
- **Improved salary scale**-Higher education helps in gaining higher income and, thus, education is an important means for upward social mobility.
- **Motivation** -It is a purpose of education to develop within the individual such motivation as will make him to work hard for the improvement of his social position.

➢ However while education in most countries including the developed ones continues to present a 'ticket' out of poverty, that is no longer the case in the UK, the United States and some other countries.

➢ Education may fail to initiate social mobility due to the following factors

- **Static economy**- other research suggests that social class mobility in Zimbabwe has been static in recent decades and is a relatively low level due to static economy
- **Social class and race** -Class and race also work together to "protect" the upper classes from downward social mobility (class reproduction). Education is used by the upper classes to avoid downward mobility by such means as sending their children to elite private secondary schools. Much sociological research, has demonstrated that the effect of education on a person's eventual job and income greatly depends on the *social class* that the person was born into (Bowles et al. 2005).
- **Theory of cultural reproduction** (Pierre Bourdieu 1930-2002) in Giddens (2009) -The central concept in Bourdieu's theory is *capital*, which he takes from Marx's ideas on the development of capitalism.

❖ Marx saw the ownership of the means of production as the crucial division in society, conferring social advantage on capitalists who are able to subordinate the workers. Bourdieu termed this **economic capital** which is just one of several forms of capital which individuals and social groups can use to gain advantage.

❖ Bourdieu identifies **social capital**, which refers to membership of and involvement in elite social networks or moving within social groups which are well connected.

- **Cultural capital** is that form which is gained within the family environment and through education, usually leading to certificates such as degrees and other credentials, which are forms of symbolic capital.
- **Symbolic capital** refers to the prestige, status and other forms of social honor, which enable those with high status to dominate those with lower status.
- The important aspect of this scheme is that forms of capital can be exchanged. For example, those with high *cultural capital* may be able to trade it for *economic capital:* for example, during interviews for well-paid jobs, their superior knowledge and credentials can give them an advantage over other applicants.
- Those with high *social capital* may 'know the right people' or 'move in the right social circles' and be able to effectively exchange this *social capital* for *symbolic capital*- respect from others and increased social status - which increases their power chances in dealings with other people.(Giddens 2009)

➢ Thus if one doesn't have enough economic, cultural and social capital, he may find it difficult to maneuver in upward through social mobility.
- Without enough economic capital one may fail to have access to elite educational opportunities or social networks
- Without enough social capital one may lack advice, guidance, aspirations and their horizons not broadened by positive role models who can show them the way to succeed hence may fail to achieve upward social mobility. It's not about what you know but who you know
- Without enough cultural capital one may not have superior knowledge and credentials which make him exceptional amongst others because he might have grown up in a working class family which do not value education hence may struggle to achieve upward social mobility

Relationship between education and the economy

➢ Education plays a pivotal role in the state economy, in the following:
- People in any state can manage their living standards very well through education hence develop the economy. e.g. people become self-reliant
- People are able to manage and plan their own affairs for a sound development. e.g. it can promote entrepreneurship
- Some crucial aspects of the economy for example inflation can be improved by one tool of education.
- People are educated and are able to solve their social problems with education becoming a binding factor. E.g. education improves social responsibility
- Education enables scientific advances like promoting use of ICTs through STEM. It increases innovation in the economy
- Can partner with religion in economic development (refer to protestant ethic and spirit of capitalism)
- Economy is controlled by the state of literacy among people. Literacy drives a country's economy
- Education is an investment in human capital, similar to investment in better equipment

➢ However as the supply of labor increases, more pressure is placed on the wage rate.

- Also the state of the economy can affect education. Ineffective economies increase school drop outs, poor quality education as schools will be lacking resources and motivated, well trained teachers
- Poor economies may also deprive children the necessary economic and social capital
- Infrastructure- superstructure relationship

Global trends in Education

The impact of globalization on education in Zimbabwe

- Anthony Giddens and Roland Robertson (*refer back on Robertson's definition-globalization and family notes*), who were some of the first authors to write about globalization, have treated globalization, to some extent, similarly in terms of time-space compression. According to Giddens [1990, p.64] , globalization refers to "the intensification of the worldwide social relations which link distance localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa". In this definition, Giddens [ibid] argues that although the world is very huge and has large geographical distances, it still appears to be a small village under the conditions of globalization.
- Marginson [1999] mentions that education "has become a primary medium of globalization and an incubator of its agents"
- In addition, Priestly [2002] argues that national education systems have been changed quite noticeably by the processes of globalization and that most changes happening recently in education can be attributed to the effects of and responses to globalization.
- Correspondingly, Jones and Coleman [2005] state that no education system globally can survive and stay unaffected by globalization. Indeed, policy making in education is much affected by the phenomenon of globalization.
- Traditionally, policy has been produced within the authority of the nation-state. However, over the last two decades globalization has witnessed some challenges to such nation-state bound policy making in education (Rizvi &Lingard 2010)
- **Positive impact**

- **Internationalization of learning**. Globalization has resulted in increased emphasis on internationalization of the subjects included in a course of study in school e.g. most education curriculums in Zimbabwe seek to meet international education standards by emphasizing on ICT usage in learning
- **New opportunities for research**. It also creates the opportunities for new partnerships in research and teaching with agencies and institutions across the world (Twiggs and Oblinger, 1996). Globalization broadens the horizon of learners. e.g. learners can use examples from other countries in their learning in Zimbabwe
- **Promotes use of ICT in schools**. Technology and communication developments are shaping children, the future citizens of the world into "global citizens"
    - More programs and education materials are made available in electronic form, teachers are preparing materials in electronic form; and students are generating papers, assignments and projects in electronic form

- ❖ Video projection screens, books with storage device servers and CD ROMs as well as the rise of on-line digital libraries are now replacing blackboards
- ❖ With the emergence of video conferencing and the Internet, the barriers of distance are being broken down at a fast rate, due to the key aspect of globalization.

- **Exploration of new areas of learning and thinking.** Globalization allows for exploration of new areas of learning and thinking. e.g. sociology as a learning area in Zimbabwe has greatly developed due to globalization. Scholte [2000] states that 'some people have associated "globalization" with progress, prosperity and peace.
- **Creation of globally relevant labor force for economic development.** Education is crucial to developing countries, creating opportunities for these countries to engage and integrate with the global economy. Education seen as investing in people through equipping them with the new knowledge and skills needed for the global economy is believed to play the greatest role in development [Robertson et al 2007]
- **Multilateral organizations.** Multilateral organizations have played a huge role by offering educational programs and being the largest aid provider for reforming education in the developing world. They promote the advancement of education globally. For instance, the UN has four agencies that support education: these are the United Nations Educational Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Bank, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the United Nations development programs (UNESCO 2001). E.g UNICEF through $80 million multi-donor programme ETF brought education resources in Zimbabwe

➢ **Negative impact**

- **Widening of education gaps**. Technology and communication seems to be creating in human life between the "haves" and the "have not's", resulting in a bifurcated society of those who can afford such information technology and those who cannot. Therefore to some extent globalization make education unaffordable to some groups in the society thereby widening the education gap between the rich and the poor
- **Market oriented education**. The capitalist society is gradually becoming global with a strong focus on free trade emerging. Educational institution obviously have reacted accordingly, by becoming more market oriented, focusing their energy more on creating capitals rather than providing sufficient education for students.(Benking,1997)
- **Negative latent functions**. Globalization is often associated with Americanization or Westernization of society hence the education institution ceases to serve the interests of receiving countries (developing) but unintentionally serve those of the western countries(developed)
- **Brain drain**. There is increased brain drain in developing nations due to globalization. education institutions of developing countries are often left with inexperienced human resources
- **Loss of education policy sovereignty**. Sovereignty of nation states like Zimbabwe in designing own culturally suitable education will be lost. Education policy was some time ago a mainly national affair. Nevertheless, within the wider context of globalization, education is regarded now as an international commodity [Green 2002]. E.g. the current debate on whether to use cellphones or not in schools by learners is globalization versus culture conflict.

- **Conditions of multilateral organizations**. The conditionality associated with aid always places pressures on nation-states' education policies especially in Zimbabwe. The World Bank has set its own desirable policy goals and countries must implement its policies and programs so they can get financial assistance (Jones & Coleman 2005)

Theories of Education

1. Functionalist perspective on education

- Functionalists view education as one of the more important social institutions in a society. They contend that education contributes two kinds of functions: manifest (or primary) functions, which are the intended and visible functions of education; and latent (or secondary) functions, which are the hidden and unintended functions.

Manifest Functions

(a) Socialization

- For ***Emile Durkheim***, education plays an important role in the socialization of children because, particularly by learning history, for example, children gain an understanding of the common values in society, uniting a multitude of separate individuals.
- Durkheim argues that schooling enables children to internalize the social rules that contribute to the functioning of society.
- As a 'society in miniature', the school also teaches discipline and respect for authority.
- In industrial societies, Durkheim argues (1961 [1925]), education also has another socialization function: it teaches the skills needed to perform roles in increasingly specialized occupations. In traditional societies, occupational skills could be learnt within the family, but as social life became more complex and an extended division of labor emerged in the production of goods, an education system developed that could pass on the skills required to fill the various specialized, occupational roles.
- ***Parsons*** argued that a central function of education was to instil in pupils the value of individual achievement. This value was crucial to the functioning of industrialized societies, but it could not be learned in the family.
- A child's status in the family is ascribed - that is, fixed from birth. By contrast, a child's status in school is largely achieved, and in schools children are assessed according to universal standards, such as exams.
- For Parsons, the function of education is to enable children to move from the particularistic standards of the family to the universal standards needed in a modern society.
- According to Parsons, schools, like the wider society, largely operate on a meritocratic basis: children achieve their status according to merit (or worth) rather than according to their sex, race or class (Parsons and Bales 1956)

(b) Teaching Knowledge and Skills

- Sociologist ***Randall Collins*** *(1979)* observed that industrialized nations have become **credential societies.** By this, he means that employers use diplomas and degrees as sorting devices to determine who is eligible for a job.
- Because employers don't know potential workers, they depend on schools to weed out the incapable. For example, when one graduate from college, potential employers will presume that one is a responsible person—that one have shown up for numerous classes, have turned in scores of assignments, and have demonstrated basic writing and

thinking skills. They will then graft their particular job skills onto this foundation, which has been certified by one's college.

(c) Cultural Transmission of Values

- Another manifest function of education is the **cultural transmission of values**, a process by which schools pass on a society's core values from one generation to the next.

(d) Social Integration

- Schools also bring about social integration. They promote a sense of national identity by having students salute the flag and sing the national anthem.eg. the schools national pledge in Zimbabwe
- People with disabilities often have found themselves left out of the mainstream of society. To overcome this, Zimbabwean schools have added a manifest function, **mainstreaming,** or inclusion. This means that educators try to incorporate students with disabilities into regular school activities.

(e) Social Placement (Role –Allocation/ Gatekeeping)

- Schools identify talent and match instruction to ability. Schooling increases meritocracy by rewarding talent and hard work regardless of social background and provides a path to upward social mobility.
- **Social placement** is a function of education—funneling people into a society's various positions
- **Gatekeeping** is the process by which education opens and closes doors of opportunity; another term for the social placement function of education (Henslin 2012). Gatekeeping is often accomplished by **tracking/sorting,** sorting students into different educational programs on the basis of their perceived abilities.
- Gatekeeping sorts people on the basis of merit, said functionalists Talcott Parsons (1940), Kingsley Davis, and Wilbert Moore (Davis and Moore 1945).
- According to ***Davis and Moore*** (1947) education sifts, sorts and grade people according to their talent and ability and place them to the job they are best suited for.
- This benefits society as roles will be executed diligently and conscientiously. For example, teacher, doctor. The two further pointed out that high economic rewards associated with these roles acts as incentive and motivation for people to undergo training.

(f) Social control

- It is the regulation of deviant behavior, is also a function of education. For the functionalists schools are key agencies of social control. Thus they regulate behaviors and activities as well as impart the basic principle that collective existence/social life demands.
- Like other social institutions, such as the family and religion, education prepares young people to lead productive and orderly lives as adults by introducing them to the norms, values, and sanctions of the larger society.
- At school rules such as obedience, respect, punctuality and not to steal are taught all these ensure that society operates smoothly. Schools also rewards those who adhere to rules and punish those who do not this will motivate children to observe rules and this will promote order and stability in society.

- Durkheim pointed that schools are societies in miniature (small) where children learn to interact in terms of fixed rule. He further argued that it is by respecting school rules that students learn to observe rules in general.

Latent Functions

- Schooling also serves several less widely recognized functions:
  - **Babysitting**-It provides child care for the growing number of one-parent and two-career families.
  - There is a ***hidden curriculum*** in schools—a latent function of education; that is, schools not only "function" to give skills and training, but they also teach students norms, identities, and other forms of social learning that are not part of the formal curriculum.
  - **Courtship** (*matchmaking*) - Because most students are unmarried, it is at high school and college that many people meet their future spouses. The sociological significance is that schools funnel people into marriage with mates of similar background, interests, and education.
  - **Social networks**-some students make lifetime friendships, while others make contacts that benefit their careers. The educational setting introduces students to social networks that might last for years and can help people find jobs after their schooling is complete. Of course, with social media such as Facebook, WhatsApp and LinkedIn, these networks are easier than ever to maintain.
  - **Promoting Social and Political Integration**-Schools also *stabilize society* by keeping these millions off the streets, where they might be holding demonstrations and demanding change in the political system.
  - **Serving as an Agent of Change**-Sex education classes were introduced to public schools in response to the soaring pregnancy rate among teenagers. Affirmative action in admissions—giving priority to females —has been endorsed as a means of countering racial and sexual discrimination.

2. Conflict-Marxist Perspective on education

- The functionalist perspective portrays contemporary education as a basically benign institution. For example, it argues that schools rationally sort and select students for future high-status positions, thereby meeting society's need for talented and expert personnel.
- In contrast, the conflict perspective views education as an instrument of elite domination. Conflict theorists point out the sharp inequalities that exist in the educational opportunities available to different racial and ethnic groups.
- Unlike functionalists, who look at the benefits of education, conflict theorists examine how *the educational system reproduces the social class structure.* By this, they mean that schools perpetuate the social divisions of society and help members of the elite to maintain their dominance
- Education as part of the superstructure in a Capitalist society, it is designed to benefit the Capitalist not the society as purported by the biased functionalist. Marxist noted that education benefit the Capitalist and they benefit in the following ways:

(a) The Hidden Curriculum- creates a hardworking, docile, obedient and highly motivated workforce for capitalism.

- *Bowles and Gintis* showed that a hidden curriculum exists within education systems, through which pupils learn discipline, hierarchy and passive acceptance of the status quo.(Giddens 2009)
- They also observed that the education system is designed in a way that corresponds with the work place. This is done to ensure that the future labor force gets prepared for work in a Capitalist society.
- The two notes a close correspondence between the social relationship which govern personal interactions in the workplace and the relationship in the school system.

i. **The correspondence principle** as a result of the hidden curriculum. Conflict sociologists Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis (1976, 2002) used the term **correspondence principle** to refer to how schools reflect society. This term means that what is taught in a nation's schools *corresponds* to the characteristics of that society. Here are some examples.

Characteristics of Schools	Characteristics of Society
Education (school)	Work-place
Headmaster	Managers
Senior teachers	Supervisor
Teachers	Foreman
Enforce punctuality in attendance and homework	Need for dependable workers
Make students submissive	Need for submissive workers
Encourage competition	Capitalism
Unequal funding of schools	Social inequality
Provide a model of authority in the classroom e.g. monitors and prefects	Bureaucratic structure of corporations

- After noting the correspondence they argue that the role of education is to provide the Capitalist with the labor force with the personality, attitude and values needed to function effectively at the work-place. Bowles and Gintis (1979) argue that this is accomplished by the Hidden-Curriculum

ii. **Subservient work-force**- The education system produces a subservient, docile and uncritical work-force. Conflict theorists conclude that the correspondence principle demonstrates that the educational system is designed to turn students into dependable workers who will not question their bosses. Holborn and Haralambos (2008) noted that for the Marxists American education system was creating unimaginative and unquestioning work-force.

iii. **Acceptance of Hierarchy**- Schools are organized in a hierarchical principle of authority and control. For example, head, senior teacher, prefects down to class monitor. Those with power give orders and pupils obey. Coercive mechanisms are put in place to force students to respect the hierarchy eg warning, punishment, suspension and expulsion as well as

ideological such as rewarding those who respect the hierarchy eg most disciplined and punctual student.

- ❖ This according to Bowles and Gintis (1979) prepares them for work-place, where workers are to be respectful and follow the orders of those in authority, the managers, supervisors and foreman if they want to stay out of trouble.

iv. **External rewards**- According to Bowles and Gintis (1979) students do not enjoy learning, but they are motivated to do so by the external rewards promised after getting educated. For example, a good job, good life, respect and honor in society. The same applies at the workplace where workers are promised external rewards such as high salaries, bonuses pension, as well as recognition such as worker of the month or year.

- ❖ For the two this is important since work in a Capitalist is unsatisfying as it is fashioned to meet the needs of Capitalist (profits) and not human needs. This hidden curriculum reinforces the positions of those with higher cultural capital

v. **Fragmentation of knowledge**- In the school system there is fragmentation of knowledge, students move from one subject to another with subjects having no link at all. This also occurs at the work place where job specialization is emphasized in factories and industries.

- ❖ According to Bowles and Gintis (1979) this is all done to deny the workers knowledge of the whole production process and this will impedes them from setting competition against the employer, hence will remain depended on them.
- ❖ Furthermore it is a divide and rule tactic as divide workers are easy to control. This ensures that the workers remain alienated to each other and will never build social solidarity needed to overthrow Capitalism

vi. **Legitimize inequality**- Bowles and Gintis (1976) noted that the education system is used to make inequalities acceptable and unchallenged by portraying society and education system as fair and just to all.

- ❖ All this, is accomplished through spreading and diffusing ideologies such as Parsons Idea of equality of opportunity and Young's meritocratic principle which claim that education reward people based on merit.
- ❖ This will legitimize and portray the positions of the rich as earned deserving high rewards and privileges, whilst that of the poor as earned and not deserving anything.
- ❖ The Marxists observe that some groups are better positioned than others; the middle and upper class are better positioned to obtain high qualifications and highly rewarding jobs than lower class. This is all disguised by the myth of meritocracy and equality of opportunity
- ❖ Bernstein and Willis saw, the education system itself is not just a neutral field divorced from the wider society. Rather, the culture and standards within the education system reflect that of society and, in doing so, schools systematically advantage those who have already acquired cultural capital in their family and through the social networks in which it is embedded (a crucial form of social capital).
- ❖ Middle-class children fit into the culture of schools with ease; they speak correctly, they have the right manners and they do better when it comes to exams.
- ❖ But because the education system is portrayed and widely perceived as being open to all on the basis of talent, many working-class children come to see themselves as intellectually inferior and accept that they, rather than the system itself, are to blame for their failure. In

this way, the education system is able to play a key role in the cultural reproduction of social inequalities.

vii. Discrimination by IQ (Standardized Testing)

- Even intelligence tests help to keep the social class system intact.
- IQ tests have been attacked for being biased—for testing cultural knowledge (cultural biases) rather than actual intelligence e.g. a test item may ask students what instruments belong in an orchestra. To correctly answer this question requires certain cultural knowledge—knowledge most often held by more affluent people who typically have more exposure to orchestral music.
- The tests are constructed so that the average score is 100 points: anyone scoring less is labelled as 'below-average intelligence', and anyone scoring above has 'above-average intelligence'.
- These tests, to conflict theorists, are another way in which education does not provide opportunities, but instead maintains an established configuration of power

viii. School Tracking (streaming)

- Conflict theorists point to **tracking**, a formalized sorting system that places students on "tracks" (advanced versus low achievers) that perpetuate inequalities.
- While educators may believe that students do better in tracked classes because they are with students of similar ability and may have access to more individual attention from teachers, conflict theorists feel that tracking leads to self-fulfilling prophecies in which students live up (or down) to teacher and societal expectations (Education Week 2004).
- Most students from privileged backgrounds do well on standardized tests and get into higher tracks, where they receive the best the school can offer.
- Students from disadvantaged backgrounds typically do less well on these tests and end up in lower tracks, where teachers stress memorization and put little focus on creativity

NB: (1) *also refer to factors of differential education achievement for more on conflict perspective on education* .

(2) *The education institution among other institutions is an Ideological State Apparatus (ISA). Apply the ideas of the theory below to the education institution and other social institutions*

Louis Althusser. 1918-1990- the reproduction of labor power

- Althusser begins the essay by reiterating the Marxist theory that in order to exist, a social formation is required to essentially, continuously and perpetually reproduce the productive forces (Labor power), the conditions of production and the relations of production. The reproduction of production relations is ensured by the wage system which pays a minimum amount to the workers so that they appear to work day after day, thereby limiting their vertical mobility
- Marx's theory is that the superstructure comes from the infrastructure and reconditions ways of life and living so that the infrastructure continues to be produced. The **state** is explicitly conceived as a repressive apparatus. The state is a repressive 'machine' that enables the dominant classes to ensure their domination over the working class in order to subject it to the process of extorting surplus value (that is, to capitalist exploitation) .

- The state is thus, above all, what the Marxist classics have called the state apparatus. According to a Marxist view, a state is an instrument of class rule (control). It is an institution representing the interest of the ruling class.
- Althusser has enhanced the Marxist theory of the state, by distinguishing the repressive state apparatuses of the state (RSA) from the **ideological apparatuses of the state** (ISA), which are an array of social institutions and multiple, political realities that propagate many ideologies:
    1. The Scholastic Apparatus(the educational ISA)
    2. The Familial Apparatus (the family ISA)
    3. The Religious Apparatus (the religious ISA)
    4. The Political Apparatus (the political ISA)
    5. The Associative Apparatus
    6. The Information and News Apparatus
    7. The Publishing and Distribution Apparatus
    8. The Cultural Apparatus (the cultural ISA)

    5–7: the communications ISA, etc.; 6–7: the legal ISA etc

N.B This *list is provisional because, first, it is not exhaustive and, second, because it may be that apparatuses 7 and 8 are just one apparatus.* (Page 75-76)

- All Ideological State Apparatuses (ISAs) without exception contribute to the same end: the reproduction of the relations of production, that is, of capitalist relations of exploitation

Educational Ideological state apparatus

- As part of the superstructure, the education system is ultimately shaped by the infrastructure
- It will therefore reflect the relations of production and serve the interests of the capitalist ruling class
- For the ruling class to survive and prosper, the 'reproduction of labor is essential' generations of workers must be reproduced to create the profits on which the capitalists depend
- Althusser argues that the reproduction of labor power involves two processes. First, the reproduction of the skills necessary for an efficient labor. Second, the reproduction of ruling class ideology and the 'socialization of workers in terms of it. These processes combine to reproduce a technically efficient and submissive and obedient workforce
- The role of education in capitalist society is the reproduction of such a force
- Althusser argues that no class can hold power for any length of time simply by use of force (RSA). Ideological control provides a far more effective means of maintaining class rule. Physical force is an inefficient means of control compared to winning over hearts and minds
- This submission is reproduced by a number of ISA which include education
- Educational ISA, in particular, assume a dominant role in a capitalist economy, and conceal and mask the ideology of the ruling class behind the "liberating qualities" of education, so that the hidden agendas of the ruling class are inconspicuous to most teachers, students, parents and other interested members of society
- Althusser said that the school has supplanted the church as the crucial ISA for indoctrination, which augments the reproduction of the relations of production (i.e. the capitalist relations of exploitation) by training the students to become a source of labour power, who work for and under capitalists

- Behind the 'theatre' of the political struggles which the bourgeoisie has offered the popular masses as a spectacle, or imposed on them as an ordeal, what it has established as its number-one, that is, its *dominant*, Ideological State Apparatus is *the scholastic apparatus*, which has in fact replaced the previously dominant Ideological State Apparatus, the Church, in its functions. The school-family dyad has replaced the Church-family dyad.

The distinction between RSA and ISA

- Ideological state apparatuses (ISA), according to Althusser, use methods other than physical violence to achieve the same objectives as RSA. They may include educational institutions (e.g. schools), media outlets, churches, social/sports clubs and the family. These formations are ostensibly apolitical and part of civil society , rather than a formal part of the state (i.e. as is the case in RSA)
- The ruling class uses the repressive state apparatuses (RSA) to dominate the working class. The basic, social function of the RSA (government, courts, police and armed forces, etc.) is timely intervention to politics in favor of the interests of the ruling class, by repressing the subordinate social classes as required, either by violent or non-violent coercive means. The ruling class controls the RSA, because they also control the powers of the state (political, legislative, armed)
- The distinction between a RSA and an ISA is its primary function in society, respectively, the administration of violent repression and the dissemination of ideology. In practice, the RSA is the means of repression and violence, and, secondarily, a means of ideology; whereas, the primary, practical function of the ISA is as the means for the dissemination of ideology, and, secondarily, as a means of political violence and repression.
- Therefore, there exists only one Repressive State Apparatus, but several Ideological State Apparatuses.

3. Feminist Perspective on education

- Feminist theory aims to understand the mechanisms and roots of gender inequality in education, as well as their societal repercussions.
- Like many other institutions of society, educational systems are characterized by unequal treatment and opportunity for women.

(a) Gender and education

- From a feminist viewpoint, one of the main roles of education has been to maintain gender inequality.
- Radical feminists argue that patriarchy still works through school to reinforce traditional gender norms and to disadvantage girls
- Hidden Curriculum according to Heaton and Lawson (1996) as well as the open curriculum work hand in glove in ensuring the perpetuation of gender inequalities. For instance textbooks contain negative stereotypes of women, they put pressure on female students to prepare for “women’s work,”

(b) Women in the curriculum

- Sharpe (1976) observed that the Curriculum reinforced gender role, school textbooks have tended to present males and females in traditional gender roles – for example, women as mothers and housewives.

- ❖ Holborn and Haralambos (2007) argue that such a portrayal of women entrench and perpetuate gender inequalities. However, liberal feminist have noted that policies such as equal opportunity changed the portrayal of women in education curriculum. Moreover, this explains a huge improvement in the attainment of girls in education.

(c) Subject choice

- ❖ Traditionally the school system tended to encourage girls to take interest in ''feminine'' pursuit such as food and nutrition, fashion and fabrics, home economics and counseling which had lower market value.
- ❖ Moore (2006) noted that these subjects prepared girls to take their roles as house wives and remain confined in the private sphere. Boys were implored to take 'masculine' pursuit such as maths, science and technology subjects with high market value. This undoubtedly reinforce the existing inequalities as boys were prepared and equipped with skills that led to high professions and this perpetuated the subordination of women.
- ❖ However due to STEM in Zimbabwe education now focuses on both males and females and this ensures equality between both sexes

(d) Teacher expectancy

- ❖ Teachers often have different expectations for males and females
- ❖ Litch and dweck (1987) also noted that boys were criticized more than girls for lacking neatness and for failing to make sufficient effort and misbehaving.
- ❖ Moreover, Beck (1992) pointed that teachers expected and encouraged boys to do well in science subjects and girls in non-science subjects
- ❖ Francis (2006) argue that this led to teacher expectancy effect, hence due to the motivation boys would work hard wanting to please their teacher leading to self-fulfilling prophecy, whilst girls tend not to perform well as they lack the required motivation

4. The Symbolic Interactionist Perspective on education

- ➢ Functionalists look at how education benefits society, and conflict theorists examine how education perpetuates social inequality. Symbolic interactionists, in contrast, study face-to-face interaction in the classroom.
- ➢ Just like the Marxist, they observed that teachers label students as dull or bright based on their class of origin and those from the working class suffer negative labeling and this affects their educational performance.

(a) Teacher expectancy effect-When students and teachers interact, certain expectations arise on the part of both. The teacher may expect or anticipate certain behaviors, good or bad, from students.

- ➢ Through the operation of the teacher expectancy effect, these expectations can actually create the very behavior in question. Thus fulfilled, the behavior is actually caused by the expectation rather than the other way around.

A study of teacher expectations and labelling effects: The Rosenthal-Jacobson Experiment (Andersen 2017 ; Henslin 2012):

- ➢ In a classic study, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) told teachers of several grades in an elementary school that certain children in their class were academic "spurters," who would increase their performance that year.

- The rest of the students were called “nonspurters.” The researchers selected the “spurters” list completely at random, unbeknownst to the teachers. The distinction had no relation to an ability test the children took early in the school year, although the teachers were told (falsely) that it did.
- At the end of the school year, although all students improved somewhat on the achievement test, those labeled “spurters” made greater gains than those designated “nonspurters.”
- What had happened was a self-fulfilling prophecy: The teachers expected more from those particular students, and responding to subtle cues, these students learned more and performed better on the tests.
- Studies continue to show evidence that teacher expectations influence outcomes, but this is mediated by many factors beyond labeling of students (Jussim and Harber 2005)
- A good deal of research confirms that, *regardless of their abilities,* students who are expected to do better generally do better, and those who are expected to do poorly do poorly (Rosenthal 1998; McKown and Weinstein 2002, 2008). In short, expect dumb and you get dumb. Expect smart, and you get smart.

(i) Labelling theory (*refer to previous notes for more*)

- It is concerned with negative definitions applied to the individuals who are seen to deviate from the rules. Hargreaves et al (1975) noted that the interaction between teacher and students is based on labels that teachers attack to students based on their physical and personal attributes.
- In terms of classroom interaction, the pupil is perceived by the teacher as breaking a rule and therefore committing a deviant act. The teacher labels the pupil as deviant. The label defines the pupil as a particular kind of person and from then on there is a tendency to interpret his actions in terms of the label.
- Other causes for labelling may include social class, race , ethnicity , gender differences and stereotypes
- The pupil may be labelled a ‘conduct problem’ a ‘troublemaker’ a ‘moron’ or a ‘clown’. If the label sticks the pupil may well be selected for special attention
- Cicourel and kitsuse note that pupils labelled as ‘conduct problems’ maybe disciplined for behavior (or even imputed attitudes) that is overlooked or unnoticed among “good” students
- This may lead to further deviance on the part of the pupil in an attempt to resolve the problem of his situation
- He may feel discriminated against and may defiantly respond to this alleged deviance by consciously committing deviant acts
- Finally he may seek out other with similar problems that is those who have been similarly labelled from their interaction. A deviant subculture may develop, a subculture which positively sanctions deviance. Those involved will then tend to see themselves in terms of the deviant label.
- Thus they may disrupt lessons, fail to hand homework, play truancy etc
- In this way a delinquent subculture developed which reinforced the effect of the labelling process

Case Study-The Rist Research (Henslin 2012)

- Rist (1970, 2000) did participant observation in an African American grade school with an African American faculty.
- He found that after only eight days in the classroom, the kindergarten teacher felt that she knew the children's abilities well enough to assign them to three separate worktables.
- To Table 1, Mrs. Caplow assigned those she considered to be "fast learners." They sat at the front of the room, closest to her.
- Those whom she saw as "slow learners," she assigned to Table 3, located at the back of the classroom. She placed "average" students at Table 2, in between the other tables. This seemed strange to Rist. He knew that the children had not been tested for ability, yet their teacher was certain that she could identify the bright and slow children.
- Investigating further, Rist found that social class was the underlying basis for assigning the children to the different tables.
- Middle-class students were separated out for Table 1, and children from poorer homes were assigned to Tables 2 and 3. The teacher paid the most attention to the children at Table 1, who were closest to her, less to Table 2, and the least to Table 3.
- As the year went on, children from Table 1 perceived that they were treated better and came to see themselves as smarter. They became the leaders in class activities and even ridiculed children at the other tables, calling them "dumb." Eventually, the children at Table 3 disengaged themselves from many classroom activities. At the end of the year, only the children at Table 1 had completed the lessons that prepared them for reading.
- Rist concluded that *each child's journey through school was determined by the eighth day of kindergarten!*, labels can be so powerful that they can set people on courses of action that affect the rest of their lives

Positive effects of labelling

- Those labelled positively are likely to excel (check a study of teacher expectation and its effects below). They develop a positive attitude towards leaning
- More teacher attention is given to such learners
- Those labelled to be having learning disability are remediated

Negative effects

- Negative label lowers learners' self esteem
- Leads to self-fulfilling prophecy of being a failure
- A student may have challenges in association with others, one can be isolated or withdrawn or begin to skip school

Criticism of the labelling theory

- Negative labelling can bring positive effects. Some learners may work to prove teachers wrong e.g. Margaret Fuller's (1984) study on black girls in a London comprehensive school found that the black girls who were labelled 'low achievers' worked to prove their negative labels wrong
- This makes the Rosenthal and Jacobson research unreliable

Labelling theory attributes too much to teacher expectancy yet there are some issues which the teacher may not have control over. e.g. entry tests which result in streaming are not the teachers' make but the school's make

(ii) Self-fulfilling prophecy theory (*refer to previous notes for more*)

- The teacher defines the pupil in a particular way, such as the pupil is 'bright' or 'dull'

- Based on this definition, the teacher makes predictions or prophecies about the behavior of the pupil e.g. he will get high or low grades
- The teacher's interaction with the pupil will be influenced by his definition of the pupil
- He may for example expect higher quality work from and give greater encouragement to the 'bright' pupil
- The pupil's self-concept (refer to looking glass self) will tend to be shaped by the teacher's definition. He will tend to see himself as 'bright' or 'dull' and act accordingly. His actions will, in part be a reflection of what the teacher expects from him
- In this way the prophecy is fulfilled; the prediction made by the teacher have come to pass

(iii) Banding and streaming (*refer to previous notes for more*)

- Interactionist also noted that banding and streaming can have a huge impact on the performance of students.
- Ball (1981) study at Beachside noted that when students are put in different band based on ''ability'' their behavior and performance is shaped by the band in which they belong. For example at Beachside students in band two were expected to be difficult to teach and least cooperative and ended up being absent, non-conformist behavior and putting less effort in school work, whilst those expected to pass worked hard to do so

Effects of streaming and banding

- Hargreaves (1967) observed that streaming and labeling lead to formation of subcultures in school which promotes deviant behaviors.
- The students placed in lower bands and labeled as ''trouble-makers'' tended to value and reward deviant act in order to lost status and prestige at school.
- Holborn and haralambos 2007 points that deviant acts such as truancy, lesson disruption and failing to hand over work gave the delinquents subcultures a sense of worth.

TOPIC 7: RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction to Sociological Research

- **Research** may be defined as systematic scientific inquiry conducted controlled conditions in which data are carefully observed for the purpose of determining the relationship between, one factor (e.g. income) another or more factors (e.g. child-rearing techniques). Redman and Mory define research as a "systematized effort to gain new knowledge."
- Research tests and supports, or refutes theories. A **research method** is a systematic plan for doing research. *Research methods* may be understood as all those methods/techniques that are used for conduction of research. In other words, all those methods which are used by the researcher during the course of studying his research problem are termed as research methods.
- Within sociology there is some debate between those who believe sociology should aim to follow the lead of traditional/natural sciences i.e scientific method (e.g chemistry, biology, physics etc) and those who feel that people possess consciousness, which means that sociology requires a different type of methodology
- This is because, unlike planets or other elements of the natural world, humans do not simply move around as objects in ways that can be measured. Even more important, people are active creatures who attach meaning to their behavior, meaning that cannot be directly observed
- **Scientific method** is a systematic, organized series of steps that ensures maximum objectivity and consistency in researching a problem. For instance the scientific method involves several steps in a research process, including observation, hypothesis testing, analysis of data, and drawing conclusions.
- Those who adhere to scientific methods are known as **positivists**, while those who stress understanding attitudes are known as **interpretive** (subjective) sociologists. **Positivist (quantitative) sociology** is the study of society based on systematic observation of social behavior.
- **Interpretive (qualitative) sociology** refers to the study of society that focuses on the meanings people attach to their social world. Max Weber, the pioneer of this framework, argued that the proper focus of sociology is interpretation, or understanding the meaning that people create in their everyday lives.
- However increasingly this division is being bridged with sociologists using a mixture of both types of methods (mixed methods)
- In their view of the world Sociologists question and analyse why things happen and if there is a way to stop a problem before it happens. They use several methods to claim to speak with about social life. There are different ways that human beings claim to acquire knowledge. Examples include the following:
  - Authority:

    Use of a Secondary source for information, it makes that source an authority in one's life. Parents, friends, the media, religious leaders, your professor, books, or web pages are all examples of secondary sources of information that some people trust for information.

- Experience:

  People often claim to have learned something through an experience, such as a car accident or using some type of drug.

  Some physical skills, such as water skiing or playing basketball, are acquired primarily through experience. On the other hand, some experiences are subjective and are not generalizable to all.
- Tradition:

  Deciding what to do in the future by repeating what was done in the past, many people get satisfaction out of celebrating holidays the same way year after year.

  Rapid changes in modern societies make traditional knowledge less and less helpful in making good choices.
- Revelation:

  Some people claim to acquire knowledge believed to be valid by consulting religious texts and believing what is written in them, such as the Torah, the Bible, the Koran,
- **Science:**
  - **Science** is the use of systematic methods of empirical investigation, the analysis at data, theoretical thinking and the logical assessment of arguments to develop a body at knowledge about a particular subject matter (Giddens 2009). It is a logical system that bases knowledge on direct, systematic observation (Macionis 2012)
  - Sociology is a scientific endeavor, according to this definition, because it involves systematic methods of empirical investigation, the analysis of data and the assessment of theories in the light of evidence and logical argument. By adopting a model of cause and effect, scientists produce knowledge that can explain certain phenomena and even predict various outcomes before they occur.

- These methods of claiming to know certain things are referred to as epistemologies.
- An **epistemology** is simply a way of knowing. In Sociology, information gathered through science is privileged over all others.
- Information gathered using other epistemologies will be rejected if it is not supported by evidence gathered using the scientific method. Like the physical sciences (i.e. chemistry, physics, etc.), sociologists can be and often are interested in predicting outcomes. This approach to *doing science* is often termed *positivism/empiricism*.
- Scientific research is based on **empirical evidence**, which is evidence that comes from direct experience, scientifically gathered data, or experimentation. It is, information we can verify with our senses

Purpose of Research

- Though each research study has its own specific purpose, some general objectives of research include:
  - To gain familiarity with a phenomenon or to achieve new insights into it (studies with this object in view are termed as *exploratory* or *formulative* research studies)
  - To portray accurately the characteristics of a particular individual, situation or a group (studies with this object in view are known as *descriptive* research studies)

- ❖ To determine the frequency with which something occurs or with which it is associated with something else (studies with this object in view are known as *diagnostic* research studies)
- ❖ To test a hypothesis of a causal relationship between variables (such studies are known as *hypothesis-testing* research studies)

Characteristics of Research

- ❖ Research is directed toward the solution of a problem
- ❖ Research requires expertise
- ❖ Research demands accurate observation and description
- ❖ Research is carefully recorded and collected
- ❖ Research is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence

Subjective and Objective Research in Sociology

- ➢ **Objectivity** is the personal neutrality in conducting research.
- ➢ Objectivity means that researchers carefully hold to scientific procedures and do not let their own attitudes and beliefs influence the results. This is the approach most inclined to quantitative approach
- ➢ **Subjectivity** is generally conceptualized as the way research is influenced by the perspectives, values, social experiences and viewpoint of the researcher. This an approach most inclined to the qualitative research

POSITIVISM: - this is the use of scientific method that makes use quantitative data.

- ➢ Auguste Comte saw sociology as an emerging science, which should adopt the successful (positivist) methods of the natural sciences such as physics and chemistry. Durkheim, Marx and the other founders of sociology also thought of sociology as a scientific subject
- ➢ Emile Durkheim advocated for a similar methodology as Comte however was not a Positivist and did not follow positivist rule that states that sociology should be confined to observable or directly measurable phenomena

1. **Social facts: -** information collected should be about phenomena that can be objectively observed and classified.
   - **Comte: -** positivism should ignore the study of emotions, motives and feelings since they cannot be objectively measured.
   - **Durkheim: -** to Durkheim phenomena such as belief system, customs and institutions of society *(*he called them **social facts***)* could be studied although they could not be directly observed or measured.
   - Durkheim saw social facts causing people to behave in certain ways.
2. **Statistical Data: -** Positivism use statistical Data by observing set of social facts.
   - Durkheim collected Data on social facts such as the suicide rates and membership to different religions.
3. **Correlations: -** a correlation is a tendency for two or more things to be found together and it may refer to the strength of the relationship between them.

- Durkheim found an apparent correlation between a particular religion (Protestantism) and high rate of suicide.

4. **Causation:** - search for causal connection.
   - If there is a strong correlation between 2 or more types of social phenomena, then a positive sociologist might suspect that one is causing the other.

- The positivist approach to social science seeks to explain and predict social phenomena, often employing a **quantitative** approach where aspects of social life are assigned numerical codes and subjected to in-depth analysis to expose tendencies often missed by a casual observer.
- This approach most often makes use of **deductive reasoning**, as situation whereby a theory and hypothesis is formed first then subjected to practical testing. **Hypothesis,** is a statement of what one expect to find according to predictions from a theory. A hypothesis predicts a relationship between or among **variables,** which are factors that change, or vary, from one person or situation to another. For example, the statement "Men who are more socially isolated are more likely to abuse their wives than are men who are more socially integrated" is a hypothesis
- **Theory** is a set of concepts and generalizations so arranged that they explain and predict possible relationships among phenomena
- **Concepts** are generalized ideas about people objects and processes that are related to one another. They are abstractions, or ways of classifying things that are similar for instance the concept of a chair includes all objects that people sit on although each person interprets the concept in his own way.
- Sociologists use concepts to label aspects of social life, including "the family" and "the economy," and to categorize people in terms of their "gender" or "social class."

Limitations of Scientific (positivist) Sociology

- **Human behaviour is too complex for sociologists to predict any individual's actions precisely**.- Astronomers calculate the movement of objects in the skies with remarkable precision, but comets and planets are non-thinking objects. Humans, by contrast, have minds of their own, so no two people react to any event (whether it be a sports victory or a natural disaster) in exactly the same way.
- **Because humans respond to their surroundings, the presence of a researcher may affect the behaviour being studied**- An astronomer's gaze has no effect on a distant comet. But most people react to being observed
- **Social patterns vary; what is true in one time or place may not hold true in another**- The same laws of physics will apply tomorrow as today, and they hold true all around the world. But human behavior is so variable that there are no universal sociological laws
- **Because sociologists are part of the social world they study, they can never be 100 percent value-free when conducting social research**.- Barring a laboratory mishap, chemists are rarely personally affected by what goes on in their test tubes. But sociologists live in their "test tube," the society they study. Therefore, social scientists may find it difficult to control—or even to recognize—personal values that may distort their work.

INTERPRETIVISM: - makes use of qualitative data**.**

- The method emphasizes on the meanings and motives of actors.
- Sees sociology as different from natural sciences in that requires the understanding of meaningful behaviour by humans. This often require the imagining of situations from another person's view point.
- According to interpretivism people do not simply react to external stimuli but interpret the meaning of stimuli before reacting. This calls for an understanding people's unobservable subjective states which cannot be reduced to statistical data and therefore makes use of qualitative data
- Unlike the physical sciences, sociology (and other social sciences, like anthropology) also often seek simply to *understand* social phenomena. Max Weber labelled this approach *Verstehen*, (pronounced "fair-SHTAY-in") which is German word for "understanding"
- This is a **qualitative sociology** which aims to understand a culture or phenomenon on its own terms rather than trying to develop a theory that allows for prediction.
- Qualitative sociologists more frequently use **inductive reasoning**, is situation where an investigator will take time to make repeated observations of the phenomena under study before a theory can be formulated. Max Weber came up with interpretive sociology to gather qualitative information.
- The interpretive sociologist does not just observe what people do but also tries to understand *why* they do it. The thoughts and feelings of subjects, which scientists tend to dismiss because they are difficult to measure, are the focus of the interpretive sociologist's attention
- Interpretive sociology does not reject science completely, but it does change the focus of research.
- **Weber on Social Action**
    - In the protestant ethic and spirit of Capitalism (1958) Weber tries to understand why Calvinist reinvested their money and became early Capitalist. Weber argued that in some circumstances religion can lead to social change. This is in spite of the fact that both Functionalists and Marxists emphasize the role of religion in promoting social integration and blocking change.

Symbolic interactionism

- Herbert Blummer (1962) argues that sociologists need to understand the view point of the people whose behaviour they are trying to understand. They cannot do this simply by statistical data. Interactionism therefore prefers methods such as in-depth interviews and participant observation. This in in agreement with interpretivism.

Phenomenology

- It is a second interactionist perspective, which deals with the ways in which social life is actually experienced. Literally, it is the systematic study of phenomena; things as they appear in our experience. It can be traced to the publication of Alfred Schutz's *The Phenomenology of the Social World* in Germany in 1932 (J. Hall, 2007; Prendergast, 2005a; Rogers, 2000). Within the lifeworld, Schutz differentiated between intimate face-to-face relationships ("we-relations") and distant and impersonal relationships ("they-relations"). While face-to-face relations are of great importance in the life-world, it is far easier for the sociologist to study more impersonal relations scientifically.

Ethnomethodology

- It is the systematic study of the methods used by 'natives' (members of a particular society) to construct their social worlds - is the third interactionist perspective. Whereas phenomenological sociologists tend to focus on what people think, ethnomethodologists are more concerned with what people actually do.

Differences between Interpretive sociology and positivist sociology

- Positivist sociology focuses on actions—on what people do—because that is what we can observe directly. Interpretive sociology, by contrast, focuses on people's understanding of their actions and their surroundings.
- Positivist sociology claims that objective reality exists "out there," but interpretive sociology counters that reality is subjective, constructed by people in the course of their everyday lives.
- Positivist sociology tends to favor quantitative data—numerical measurements of people's behavior—while interpretive sociology favors qualitative data, or researchers' perceptions of how people understand their world\
- The positivist orientation is best suited to research in a laboratory, where investigators conducting an experiment stand back and take careful measurements. On the other hand, the interpretive orientation claims that we learn more by interacting with people, focusing on subjective meaning, and learning how they make sense of their everyday lives
- Positive sociology is deductive whereas interpretive sociology is inductive

NB . Both quantitative (positivist) and qualitative (interpretive) approaches employ a scientific method as they make *observations* and *gather data*, *propose hypotheses*, and *test or refine* their hypotheses in the formulation of theories.

- Sociologists use**: -**
  - **Observations:** - to be scientific one should only study what one can observe. Studying emotions, feelings, meanings and motives is unscientific.
  - **Hypotheses:** - a prediction of what will be found which will then be tested.
  - **Deductions:** - theory and hypothesis formed first then tested.
  - **Inductions:** - observations are made first then theory is made.

Validity and reliability in research

Concept of Validity in research

- **Validity** refers to how well the study measures what it was designed to measure. It can also be viewed as **how truthful something is** and whether a piece of research has the ability to test or research what it set out to measure.
- Validity is one of the strengths of ***qualitative (naturalistic) research*** and is based on determining whether the findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers of an account (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Terms abound in the

qualitative literature that address validity, such as *trustworthiness*, *authenticity*, and *credibility* (Creswell & Miller, 2000)

- Validity in quantitative research refers to whether one can draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on particular instruments.

Importance of validity in research

- The word validity mainly refers to the **data collection** and whether it is true. If a questionnaire, which was aimed at young girls was carried out the validity would look at the results and think how truthful they were.
  - The questionnaire might not have been answered by who it was aimed at so would not be truthful. So maybe as the researcher would need to choose a method that you know who is answering it (e.g. interview)
- The validity would also take into account that if the answers were not reliable it could be because the respondents did not understand the question, so the questions would need to be more clear. **Respondents** people who respond to a survey, either in interviews or by self-administered questionnaires
- The validity would also look at whether the research methods actually measured what they claimed.
- Validity would ensure that the study's design accurately examined what it was designed to study
- If a piece of research is not reliable then it is unlikely to be valid. If a piece of research is invalid then it is worthless.

Validity strategies: How to achieve validity

- Lincoln and Guba (1985: 219, 301) suggest that credibility in naturalistic inquiry(qualitative research) can be addressed by:
  - Prolonged engagement in the field. In this way, the researcher develops an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study and can convey detail about the site and the people that lends credibility to the narrative account.
  - Persistent *observation* in order to establish the relevance of the characteristics for the focus.
  - *Triangulation* of methods, sources, investigators and theories. **Triangulation** may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior. Multiple methods of data collection and analysis used strengthens reliability as well as internal validity (Merriam, 1988)
  - Clarify the *bias* the researcher brings to the study. This self-reflection creates an open and honest narrative that will resonate well with readers
- In quantitative research validity might be improved through:
  - careful sampling,
  - appropriate instrumentation
  - appropriate statistical treatments of the data

- Qualitative Data is seen as offering more valid picture of social reality.

Triangulation

- Bryman points out that 'most researches rely primarily on a method associated with one of the two research traditions but buttress their findings with a method associated with the othe tradition'
- Bryman has suggested a number of ways in which using a plurality of methods- a practice known as triangulation can be useful:
  - Qualitative and quantitative data can be used to check on the accuracy of the conclusions reached on the basis of each
  - Qualitative research can be used to produce hypotheses which can then be checked using quantitative methods
  - The two approaches can be used together so that a more complete picture of the social group being studied is provided
  - Qualitative research maybe used to illuminate why certain variables are statistically correlated
- **Examples:**

1. In her study of the unification church or Moonies, Eileen Barker used participant observation, questionnaires and in-depth interviewing. She claimed that this combination of methods allowed her to 'see how the movement as a whole was organized and how it influenced the day to day actions and interactions of its members' (Barker 1984). She tried to test hypotheses formulated from qualitative data using questionnaires
2. Quantitative techniques have been used to systematically analyze data from observation or participant observation. For example Delamont (1976) used the Flanders interaction analysis categories in her studies of classroom interaction. These allowed her to categorize the different types of interaction and to time them in order to determine differences in the educational experience of boys and girls. She used qualitative data to explain the reasons for the quantitative relationships she found

- Bryman (1988) believes that both qualitative and quantitative research have their own advantages. Neither can produce totally valid and completely reliable data but both can provide useful insights into social life.

Concept of reliability in research

- **Reliability** refers to the extent to which a measure produces *consistent* results. Reliability in research encompasses whether the results in a research method are *trustworthy* and *dependable*. It is a measure of a study's consistency that considers how likely results are to be replicated if a study is reproduced
- If the same piece of research were carried out again the same results would be reproduced again no matter whoever was doing the research.
- In doing a piece of research *reliable data collection methods* need to be used to collect the information.
- Some methods of data collection are seen as more reliable than others.
  - For example, on a questionnaire people will often lie or not tell the truth (e.g. ticking the box to say how much you earn).

- ❖ Whereas in an interview face-to-face people will tell the truth a lot more and say exactly how they feel, so the results will be more valid.

➢ Often when carrying out research reliability can be ensured through:
- ❖ Working with others will often help your work to become more valid and reliable.
- ❖ Use measures that have proved sound in past studies

➢ Using unreliable data collection can lead to validity problems with the data; this means that the data would be inaccurate.

➢ Ways of improving validity and reliability include:

❖ Reducing the Hawthorne effect. **Hawthorne effect** is where people change their behavior because they know they are being watched as part of a study.

❖ Reducing the *halo effect*, where the researcher's knowledge of the person or knowledge of other data about the person or situation exerts an influence on subsequent judgements. e.g. the research on the self-fulfilling prophecy(sputters and non-sputters) .By contrast, the *horns effect* refers to the researcher's belief in the badness of the participants such that the more positive aspects of their behavior or personality are neglected or overlooked (Cohen et al 2007).

❖ Standardizing the conditions under which the measurement takes place i.e., ensuring that external sources of variation such as boredom, fatigue, etc., are minimized to the extent possible. That will improve stability aspect.

■ Quantitative methods are sometimes seen to be more reliable.

Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods

➢ **Qualitative research**- is a means for exploring and *understanding* the *meaning* individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell 2014). It is associated with interactionism and interpretivism

Characteristics of qualitative research

- ❖ Data analysis *inductively* build from particulars to general themes (Creswell 2014). Primarily inductive process is used to formulate theory or hypothesis
- ❖ Focus on individual *meaning*, and the importance of rendering the complexity of a situation(ibid)
- ❖ It is text-based and data cannot be expressed as numbers
- ❖ More **subjective:** describes a problem or condition from the point of view of those experiencing it
- ❖ No statistical tests are used for analysis
- ❖ Less generalizable
- ❖ Gathers data that represent nominal scales such as gender, socio economic status, and religious preference
- ❖ Qualitative methods include:
  - Focus groups
  - Participant observation.
  - In-depth interviews

- Document analysis

➢ **Quantitative research** is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell 2014). Quantitative research is based on the measurement of quantity or amount. It is applicable to phenomena that can be expressed in terms of quantity. It is associated with functionalism and positivism

Characteristics of quantitative research

❖ Designed to collect a lot data and then analyse it so that conclusions can be drawn
❖ Method is number-based; can be quantified or expressed as a number. Looks at how many people think the same about something.
❖ Primarily *deductive* process used to test pre-specified concepts, constructs, and hypotheses that make up a theory
❖ More **objective**: provides observed effects of a program on a problem or condition
❖ Less in-depth but more coverage of information across a large number of cases.
❖ Employs fixed response options.
❖ More generalizable

❖ Quantitative Methods include: -
- Surveys
- structured interviews
- observations
- questionnaires
- reviews of records documents for numeric information

Ethnography

➢ **Ethnography** is the study of an entire social setting through extended systematic fieldwork. **Observation,** or direct participation in closely watching a group or organization, is the basic technique of ethnography. Examples include Bronislaw Malinowski's study of the Trobriand islands, Laud Humphrey's study 'The Tearoom Trade'
➢ However, ethnographic research also includes the collection of historical information and the conduct of in-person interviews. Although ethnography may seem a relatively informal method compared to surveys or experiments, ethnographic researchers are careful to take detailed notes while observing their subjects.
➢ In recent years, sociologists have made use of focus groups. **Focus groups** are essentially 'group interviews' in which a particular group of people - usually between four and ten individuals - are gathered together to discuss a subject and exchange views. Advantages are:
  ✓ The researcher acts as a moderator but also asks specific questions relating to the research study, to direct the discussion.
  ✓ Focus groups can increase the size of a sample quite easily

- ✓ Because of their interactive nature, any possible misunderstandings can be clarified, thereby increasing the validity of a study's findings.

- However:
  - ✓ Researcher in a focus group is more participant than detached observer and may well influence the responses of the group.
  - ✓ There is therefore a danger that participants will perform according to their perception of the researcher's expectations.
- Ethnographic studies also have other major limitations
  - ✓ **Going native**-A researcher could begin to identify so closely with the group that he or she becomes too much of an 'insider' and loses the perspective of an outside observer. The observer loses objectivity and becomes too subjective. Researcher biases erupt when the researcher defends or protect the group
  - ✓ The researcher may be constantly frustrated because the members of the group refuse to talk frankly about themselves;
  - ✓ Only fairly small groups or communities can be studied and much depends on the skill of the researcher in gaining the confidence of the individuals involved.
  - ✓ Interpreting field studies usually involves problems of generalization. Since only a small number of people are under study, we cannot be sure that what is found in one context will apply in other situations as well. This is usually less of a problem in survey research.

Surveys

- Surveys are research projects which collect standardized data about large numbers of people. The data are usually in statistical form collected through questionnaires
- The standard survey format allows individuals a level of anonymity in which they can express personal ideas.
- In a survey, questionnaires are either sent out or administered directly in interviews to a selected group of people - sometimes as many as several thousand.
- Sociologists refer to this group of people, whatever its size, as a population. A **population** is a relatively large collection of people (or groups or categories) that a researcher studies and about which generalizations are made.
- Whilst ethnographic work is well suited to in-depth studies of small slices of social life, survey research tends to produce information that is less detailed but which can usually be applied over a broader area. Surveys are the most widely used type of quantitative research method. For instance many government bodies and private polling agencies also make extensive use of surveys to gain knowledge of people's attitudes and voting intentions.
- Advantages and disadvantages of surveys(refer to those of questionnaires and interviews)

Sampling

- It would be impossible to study all these people directly, so in such situations researchers engage in sampling - they concentrate on a sample, or small proportion, of the overall group. A **sample**, is a part of a population that represents the whole.
- One can usually be confident that results from a population sample, as long as it was properly chosen, can be generalized to the total population.

- To achieve such accuracy, a sample must be representative: the group of individuals studied must be typical of the population as a whole
- Judgements have to be made about four key factors in sampling:
  - The sample size
  - representativeness and parameters of the sample
  - access to the sample
  - the sampling strategy to be used.

Types of sampling

1. **Random and systematic sampling**
   - Random sampling-individuals are chosen entirely at random from a sampling frame, rather like the idea underlying a lottery- everybody has an equal chance of being selected
     - This is often achieved by assigning numbers to each sample unit and selecting members of the sample by using a random number table. The nearest everyday equivalent to this is picking numbers out of a hat
   - Systematic sampling-a less time-consuming, although slightly less random method is to select say every tenth or twentieth number on a list. Since the method is not truly random it is called systematic sampling
   - There are three subtypes of random sampling:
     - **Strata sample-** this involves dividing the population according to relevant factors such as age, gender or social class and once this division (into strata) is complete, taking a random sample within each stratum. It is particularly useful where the sample is very small
     - **Multi-stage(cluster sampling)**- if the survey is of a widely dispersed population , it is easier to subdivide (by random sampling) the sample into clusters e.g. political constituencies upon which electoral lists are based, are subdivided into wards which are in turn subdivided in polling districts
     - **Multiphase:** when the survey is completed the sociologists randomly select a sample of the full sample to ask further questions. This is useful when further depth is required

     Advantages of random sampling

   - Statistically very reliable
   - There are ways of checking that the sample is representative

     Disadvantages of random sampling

   - Expensive
   - Time consuming
   - Complex
   - It relies on statistical probability to ensure the representativeness of the sample
2. **Quota sampling**-allows researchers to control variables without having a sample frame
   - When quota sampling is used, the interviewees are told how many respondents with particular characteristics to question so that the overall sample reflects the characteristics of the population as a whole

Advantages

- Simple
- Relatively cheap
- Relatively quick

Disadvantages

- Relies too much on the interviewer's selection of people. If the interviewee chosen does not truly fit the category given to the interviewer, then the sample is ruined
- No possibility of checking accuracy of ample
- Stopping people in the street may lead to a low response rate

3. **Snowballing**- it is used when other methods are not practical.

- It involves using personal contacts to build up a sample of the group to be studied e.g. using a criminal to introduce the researcher to other network of criminals
- The strength is that snowballing is used to get information from different groups like professional criminals
- Weaknesses include the issue of representativeness of the sample since only those in the network are considered

4. **Convenience sampling**-This means taking your sample from wherever you can! Because convenience sampling is less systematic and rigorous than other types, the results it generates have to be treated with caution.

- Nonetheless, in applied research or studies of hard-to-reach social groups who may be reluctant to come forward (substance misusers or people who self-harm, for example), it may be the only practical way of gathering an adequate sample.
- Researchers simply choose the sample from those to whom they have easy access. As it does not represent any group apart from itself, it does not seek to generalize about the wider population

Experiments

- An experiment can be defined as an attempt to test a hypothesis under highly controlled conditions established by an investigator (Giddens 2009).
- In an experimental situation the researcher directly controls the circumstances being studied
- The most customary experiment consists of three main parts:
  - Independent and Dependent Variables
  - Pre-testing and Post-testing
  - Experimental Control Groups

(a) Independent and Dependent Variables

- **Variable** A measurable trait or characteristic that is subject to change under different conditions. Variables are factors that change, or vary, from one person or situation to another.
- In research, **independent variables** are the cause of the change. The **dependent variable** is the effect, or thing that is changed. An independent variable is one that the researcher

wants to test as the presumed cause of something else. The dependent variable is one on which there is a presumed effect. That is, if *X* is the independent variable, then *X* leads to *Y*, the dependent variable. For example, in a basic study, the researcher would establish one form of human behavior as the independent variable and observe the influence it has on a dependent variable. How does gender (the independent variable) affect rate of income (the dependent variable)? How does one's religion (the independent variable) affect family size (the dependent variable)? How is social class (the dependent variable) affected by level of education (the independent variable)?

(b) Pretesting and Post-testing

- **Pre-testing**- the initial measurement of a dependent variable among subject.
- **Post-testing**- the re-measurement of a dependent variable among subjects, after they have been introduced to the independent variable.
- Once pre-testing and post-testing are conducted, any deviations between the first and final measurements are then stated as characteristics of the independent variable.

(c) Experimental and Control Groups

- Classically, the sociologist selects a set of people with similar characteristics, such as age, class, race, or education. Those people are divided into two groups. One is the experimental group and the other is the control group. The experimental group is exposed to the independent variable(s) and the control group is not. **Experimental group** is the group of subjects in an experiment who are exposed to the independent variable. **control group** the subjects in an experiment who are not exposed to the independent variable
- To test the benefits of tutoring, for example, the sociologist might expose the experimental group of students to tutoring but not the control group. Then both groups would be tested for differences in performance to see if tutoring had an effect on the experimental group of students.

Strengths of Experimental Method:

- ❖ Isolation of experimental variable's impact over time
- ❖ Replication is possible

- For sociologists they may not prefer laboratory experiments because:
  - ❖ Artificiality (unnatural) of laboratory setting-members become aware of the process
  - ❖ It is impractical to carry out experiments in laboratories since it is impossible to fit a the whole society into a laboratory hence field experiments are preferred
  - ❖ Ethics are violated
  - ❖ Unless the research environment is carefully controlled, results may be biased

Field experiments

- They experiments done outside a laboratory
- Hypotheses can be tested by isolating particular variables

Examples

(a) Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) tested the hypothesis that self-fulfilling prophecies could affect educational attainment by manipulating the independent variable of pupils' IQ scores known to teachers

(b) Sissons observed the reaction of members of the public when they were asked for directions by an actor who varied his appearance from time to time. Through the

experiment he changed from being dressed as a businessman to being dressed as a labourer. Sissons found that the public were more helpful when the actor was dressed as a business rather than as a labourer

(c) Brown and Gay (1985) conducted field experiments in which they made bogus applications for jobs by letter and telephone, identifying themselves as being from different ethnic groups (white, Asian and Afro-Caribbean). They found that the applications from supposedly non-white candidates were less likely to lead to a job interview than those from supposedly white candidates

- Strengths of field experiments:
  - They are done in the natural setting compared to laboratory ones
  - Can be implemented to a greater number of people unlike laboratory experiments
- Weaknesses include:
  - Not possible to control variables closely unlike in laboratory experiment for instance the Sissons' experiment could not be carried out at the same place and same time, factors such as the weather and time of the day might have affected the results
  - The Hawthorne effect. To reduce this, subjects may be made unaware of the experiment. However it also violates the issue of ethics like in the Rosenthal and Jacobson's experiment where the researchers may have held back the educational careers of some children by lying to their teachers
  - Government consent may be difficult to get due to discretion issues

The Hawthorne Effect

- It is the process where human subjects of an *experiment* change their behaviour, simply because they are being studied

The History of the Hawthorne Effect

- The name is of a place where the effect was first encountered. In 1955, the researcher, Henry A. Landsberger, performed a study and analysis of data from experiments performed between 1924 and 1932, by Elton Mayo, at the Hawthorne Works near Chicago. The company had commissioned studies to determine if the level of light within their building affected the productivity of the workers.
- One experiment tested the hypothesis that increasing the available lighting would raise worker output. First, researchers measured worker productivity or output (the dependent variable). Then they increased the lighting (the independent variable) and measured output a second time. Productivity had gone up, a result that supported the hypothesis. But when the research team later turned the lighting back down, productivity increased again. What was going on? Mayo found that: -
  - The level of light made no difference in the productivity, as the workers increased output whenever the amount of light was switched from a low level to a high level, or vice versa.
  - He noticed that this effect occurred when any variable was manipulated, and postulated that it happened because the workers automatically changed their behavior. They increased output, simply because they were aware that they were under observation. In time, the researchers realized that the employees were working harder (even if they could not see as well) simply because people were paying attention to them and measuring their output

- The logical conclusion was that the workers felt important because they were pleased to be singled out, and increased productivity as a result. Being singled out was the factor dictating increased productivity, not the changing lighting levels, or any of the other factors that they experimented upon.

Case Studies

- A **case study** is an in-depth analysis of a single event, situation, or individual. To conduct a case study, a researcher examines existing sources like documents and archival records, conducts interviews, and engages in direct observation and even participant observation, if possible.
- Researchers might use this method to study a single case of, for example, a foster child, drug lord, cancer patient, criminal, or rape victim.
- Their strengths include:
  - ✓ Case studies are useful when the single case is unique. In these instances, a single case study can add tremendous knowledge to a certain discipline. For example, a feral child, also called "wild child," is one who grows up isolated from human beings. Feral children grow up without social contact and language, which are elements crucial to a "civilized" child's development. These children mimic the behaviors and movements of animals, and often invent their own language.

  Example At age three, a Ukranian girl named Oxana Malaya suffered severe parental neglect. She lived in a shed with dogs, and she ate raw meat and scraps. Five years later, a neighbor called authorities and reported seeing a girl who ran on all fours, barking. Officials brought Oxana into society, where she was cared for and taught some human behaviors, but she never became fully socialized. She has been designated as unable to support herself and now lives in a mental institution (Grice 2011). Case studies like this offer a way for sociologists to collect data that may not be collectable by any other method.
- Weaknesses include:
  - ✓ A major criticism of the case study as a method is that a developed study of a single case, while offering depth on a topic, does not provide enough evidence to form a generalized conclusion. In other words, it is difficult to make universal claims based on just one person, since one person does not verify a pattern. This is why most sociologists do not use case studies as a primary research method.

Use of Existing Sources (secondary analysis)

- Secondary analysis refer to the analysis of data that have been collected by other researchers. To investigate social life, sociologists examine such diverse documents as books, newspapers, diaries, bank records, police reports, immigration files, and records kept by organizations.
- The term *documents* is broad, and it also includes video and audio recordings.
- Advantages are:
  - ✓ Saves time and expense of data collection
  - ✓ Makes historical research possible
- Disadvantages include:

- ✓ Researcher has no control over possible biases in data. For example official government reports are controversial since government will be protecting self-image
- ✓ Data may only partially fit current research needs.
- ✓ Official crime statistics are sometimes unreliable because some crimes are not reported to the police and the police as well may fail to record crime for their own discretion

Primary and Secondary data

- **(**Note that *data* is the plural form; one says, "data are used . . . ," not "data is used. . . .") Data can be qualitative or quantitative; either way, they are still data. **Data** refer to the systematic information that sociologists use to investigate research questions (Andersen et al 2017).

A. Primary data is the data collected by the researcher themselves. The *primary data* are those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character for example:

- ❖ interview,
- ❖ observation,
- ❖ action research,
- ❖ case studies,
- ❖ life histories,
- ❖ questionnaires,
- ❖ ethnographic research
- ❖ longitudinal studies

- ➢ Primary sources enable the researcher to get as close as possible to what actually happened and is hands on.
- ➢ A primary source reflects the individual viewpoint of a participant or observer, primary sources are first-hand information from a person who witnessed or participated in an event.

B. Secondary sources are data that already exist. The *secondary data*, on the other hand, are those which have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process. For example:

- ❖ previous research,
- ❖ official statistics,
- ❖ mass media products,
- ❖ diaries,
- ❖ letters,
- ❖ government reports
- ❖ web information

- ➢ By way of caution, the researcher, before using secondary data, must see that they possess following characteristics:

1. **Reliability of data:** The reliability can be tested by finding out such things about the said data:
   (a) Who collected the data? (b) What were the sources of data? (c) Were they

collected by using proper methods (d) At what time were they collected?(e) Was there any bias of the compiler? (f) What level of accuracy was desired? Was it achieved ?

2. **Suitability of data:** The data that are suitable for one enquiry may not necessarily be found suitable in another enquiry. Hence, if the available data are found to be unsuitable, they should not be used by the researcher.
3. **Adequacy of data:** If the level of accuracy achieved in data is found inadequate for the purpose of the present enquiry, they will be considered as inadequate and should not be used by the researcher. The data will also be considered inadequate, if they are related to an area which may be either narrower or wider than the area of the present enquiry.

Research tools

- A researcher requires many data – gathering tools or techniques. **Research techniques** refer to the behavior and instruments we use in performing research operations such as making observations, recording data, techniques of processing data and the like.
- Tools may vary in complexity, interpretation, design and administration. Each tool is suitable for the collection of certain type of information. One has to select from the available tools those which will provide data he seeks for testing hypothesis. It may happen that existing research tools do not suit the purpose in some situation, so a researcher should modify them or construct his own.

  Different tools used for data collection may be;
  1. Questionnaires
  2. Interviews
  3. Schedules
  4. Observation Techniques
  5. Rating Scales

A. Questionnaire:

- It is list of questions related to one topic. It may be defined as; "A questionnaire is a systematic compilation of questions that are submitted to a sampling of population from which information is desired."

  - These can either be sent to the respondent's home however this approach often has a low response rate as people see no reason to fill them in,
  - They can also be given to the person directly to be filled in there or then e.g. on the streets (**self-administered questionnaires** which are questionnaires that respondents fill out).
  - Questions may also be in the form of an interview where the researcher reads out the questions.

- Questionnaires can be administered in several ways, including:
  - Self-administration,
  - post,
  - face-to-face interview,

- Telephone.
- Internet-e-mail allows a researcher to contact a large number of people over a wide geographic area at minimal expense. But many people who receive such questionnaires treat them as junk mail, so typically no more than half are completed and returned

➢ High response rate (Essentials of a good questionnaire*)* can be achieved through:

- Avoiding jargon which can confused respondents
- Keeping response categories simple.
- Deciding on the most appropriate *type* of question – dichotomous('yes' or 'no') , multiple choice, rank orderings, rating scales(1 to 10, /'poor' to 'good'), constant sum, ratio, closed, open
- Asking more closed than open questions
- Asking only one thing at a time in a question. Using single sentences per item wherever possible.
- Trying to avoid threatening questions
- Ensuring that the respondent knows how to enter a reply to each question, e.g. by underlining, circling, ticking, writing e.t.c
- *Pretesting /'pilot study' (Pilot Survey)* a self-administered questionnaire with a small number of people before sending it to the entire sample can:
  - ✓ Prevent the costly problem of finding out—too late—that instructions or questions were confusing.
  - ✓ Bring to the light the weaknesses (if any) of the questionnaires and also of the survey techniques. From the experience gained in this way, improvement can be effected.
  - ✓ Improve reliability of questionnaires
  - ✓ Increase cooperation of the respondents
  - ✓ Develop research skills of the researcher
- Comparatively short and simple i.e., the size of the questionnaire should be kept to the minimum.
- Questions should proceed in logical sequence moving from easy to more difficult questions.
- Personal and intimate questions should be left to the end.

➢ Questionnaires can be used to obtain both qualitative and quantitative data:

- Using more open questions (say how you really feel answers) produces qualitative data.
- Using closed questions (fixed response answers) produce quantitative data.

➢ Types of questionnaires include:

1. Those which use closed-ended format/Structured questionnaires (similar to a multiple choice examination). This makes it fairly easy to analyze the results. Structured questionnaires are simple to administer and relatively inexpensive to analyze. The provision of alternative replies, at times, helps to understand the meaning of the question clearly. However by narrowing the range of responses, it can also distort the findings. For instance, wide range of data and that too in respondent's own words cannot be obtained with structured questionnaires. They are usually considered inappropriate in investigations where the aim happens to be to probe for attitudes and reasons for certain actions or feelings. They are equally not suitable when a problem is being first explored and working

hypotheses
sought. In such situations, unstructured questionnaires may be used effectively

2. Those which use open-ended format/unstructured or non-structured questionnaire. They allow subjects to respond freely, expressing various shades of opinion. The drawback of this approach is that the researcher has to make sense out of what can be a very wide range of answers.

Advantages of questionnaire method

- ❖ Every question is the same so it is easy to see patterns and make comparisons between different groups of people such as their age or between what jobs they have.
- ❖ No interviewer bias is involved because there is no interviewer present.
- ❖ Quick and cheap to conduct compared to other methods as large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way and also fixed response questions mean that answers can be quickly and accurately analyzed on the computer.(It's very economical and a time saving process)
- ❖ It is most reliable in special cases.

Disadvantages of questionnaire method

- ❖ Analysing the results on a large scale might be very time consuming and could be out of date when the results are ready.
- ❖ Statistics give no indication of how the person feels and could not be accurate because it could not be how the person truly feels.
- ❖ The statistics give no individual meaning or interpretation.
- ❖ People may not understand the question or think it has a different meaning and interpret it in totally different ways. Method is also argued to be inadequate to understand some forms of information - i.e. changes of emotions, behaviour, feelings etc.
- ❖ People may read differently into each question and therefore reply based on their own interpretation of the question - i.e. what is 'good' to someone may be 'poor' to someone else, therefore there is a level of subjectivity that is not acknowledged.

- This makes comparison of answers difficult if groups have common interpretation.

- ❖ Lying is also a danger.

- Difficult to check weather people are lying or not and also there is no way of telling how much a respondent thought has put in.

- ❖ If the response rate is low or the sampling is less random, the overall findings will be less reliable.
- ❖ Lacks validity
- ❖ There is a level of researcher imposition, meaning that when developing the questionnaire, the researcher is making their own decisions and assumptions as to what is and is not important...therefore they may be missing something that is of importance.
- ❖ Sometimes answers may be illegible

B. In-depth interviews

- ❖ Interviews are very similar to questionnaires as they are organised around a series of questions that the interviewee can respond. Although interviews are longer and winded than questionnaires. **Interview** is defined as direct questioning of respondents
- ❖ They are more personal than questionnaires and are able to collect more detailed information.
- ❖ Interviews usually take place face-to-face and one-to-one which enables the interviewer to gain information on a more sensitive subject.
- ❖ Interviews need to be carried out really carefully by the interviewer and require good communication skills.
- ❖ In an interview a rapport ("rah-POUR") is established between the interviewer and the interviewee. Not only is physical distance between them annihilated, the social and cultural barrier is also removed; and a free mutual flow of ideas to and fro takes place. **Rapport** is a feeling of trust between researchers and the people they are studying
- ❖ They are much harder work than questionnaires, as they can be very time consuming.
- ❖ Interviews can be open-ended, structured or semi-structured.

- Structured (closed-ended): Questions asked require a certain answer and thus responses can be quantified (Quantitative). **Structured interviews** are interviews that use closed-ended questions. **Closed-ended questions** are questions that are followed by a list of possible answers to be selected by the respondent
- Open-ended (unstructured): Don't have a format, so the interviewee can express their feelings (Qualitative). **Unstructured interviews** are interviews that use open-ended questions. **Open-ended questions** are questions that respondents answer in their own words
- Semi-structured: Are half way in-between both structured and open ended.
- During an interview it is best to use a bit of both to get a variety.

Advantages of in-depth interviews

- ❖ Good interaction can often develop between the interviewer and interviewee; this means that honest and trustworthy answers are produced. This is really important when the subject is considered sensitive or personal.
- ❖ In interviews you are able to understand how they really feel and can speak for themselves. Also interviews are able to get closer to their experiences.
- ❖ The information is not already known by the questions set, this means the interviewer can focus on specific information.
- ❖ People's feelings can be explored rather than just collecting specific information.
- ❖ A tape recorder can because, which means that the information can be referred back to when analyzing the data.
- ❖ The results depend on how skilful the interviewer is.

Disadvantages of in-depth interviews

- ❖ The interviewer can be very biased; the three main problems are:
  - The interviewer can often give clues like frowning that could influence them.
  - The interviewer could follow up information they believe is more relevant. Or

- If there was more than one interviewer than it could mean that there was more than one bias. **Interviewer bias** refer to the effects that interviewers have on respondents that lead to biased answers

❖ Interviews are very time consuming and expensive so not as many can take place.
❖ Each interview is different so it means producing statistics or general results can be difficult.
❖ The sample can be biased if someone refused to be interviewed.
❖ People can often change their mind on a topic once the interview has started and they may change their behaviour.
❖ Sometimes people ask questions back, the interviewer must not answer the questions as it can change people's minds or opinions on a subject.

Differences between Interview and Questionnaire

Questionnaire Method	**Interview Method**
1. Data is gathered indirectly. **2.** No face to face contact between the interviewer and the interviewee. **3.** Interviewer should have the general knowledge of the topic. **4.** Interviewee will hesitate to write it. **5.** We get written information only.	**1.** Data is gathered directly. **2.** There is face to face contact between interviewer and interviewee. **3.** Skillful interviewer is needed. **4.** Some confidential information can also be obtained. **5.** We get both written and oral type of information.

C. Observation Technique:

➢ The distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations. In this way, the researcher can look directly at what is taking place *in situ* rather than relying on second-hand accounts.
➢ Under the observation method, the information is sought by way of investigator's own direct observation without asking from the respondent. For instance, in a study relating to consumer behavior, the investigator instead of asking the brand of wrist watch used by the respondent, may himself look at the watch.

1) Covert observation-this is where the researcher is "undercover"; the participants are unaware that they are being observed.

Advantages of covert observation

❖ Avoids the Hawthorne effect
❖ Validity is high as people are observed in natural settings

Disadvantages of covert observation

❖ Raises ethical concerns
❖ There is risk of illegal or dangerous activities. A famous example of covert observation is Laud Humphrey's study 'The Tearoom Trade' which included the

observation and analysis of men engaging in sexual behavior in public toilets(*refer to ethical concerns notes*)

2) **Overt observation**-this is where those being observed are aware of the research process. Sometimes the group members inadvertently find out that they are research subjects and may become angry because of the discovery. In this case, covert participant observation is by accident transformed into overt participant observation.)

Advantages of overt observation

- ❖ Considers ethical concerns
- ❖ Higher level of reliability

Disadvantages of covert observation

- ❖ Increases Hawthorne effect
- ❖ Time consuming

3) **Participant observation (**or **fieldwork)** is research in which the researcher participates in a research setting while observing what is happening in that setting

- ➢ In participant observation the researcher would enter a group or situation that they were going to study, and try to get to know the group of people or the situation from their point of view and join in with what they do.
- ➢ During participant observation the researcher would try to understand the motives and meanings of the person they were studying, they are trying to gain a deeper understanding of the person's life, their beliefs, and activities of the group and where and how they live.
- ➢ It is a good way to find new information which may not have been found doing questionnaires or interviews.
- ➢ During participant observation the researcher may become too attached to the people that they are studying and the data could become invalid as the researcher could be seeing things in a different point of view, so using interviews or questionnaires alongside this research method is advised.
- ➢ This research method is very time consuming as to collect valid information, as the group would need to be studied for a long time.
- ➢ This research method is often used to find out hidden information on a hostile group like the police to find out hidden data. There is a risk of doing this because the group would not appreciate someone who they think was their friend and whom they trusted was secretly gathering information about their activities.

Advantages of Participant observation

- ❖ Observations in the group's natural settings can produce very high valid data, because they are being themselves.
- ❖ The data collected can be very useful and may give access to data that could have been hidden away otherwise.
- ❖ The data can be observed over a long period of time so can be more accurate and reliable.

- ❖ Participant observation may be the only way of accessing information on more hostile groups that would not normally let you observe them.
- ❖ During the research the researchers can decide what is important and what is not as it unfolds, and so do not have to decide what they are looking for at the beginning of the study

Disadvantages of Participant observation

- ❖ Researchers may not help but start to get involved in the group, and could influence them in what they do.
- ❖ Participant observers may never really understand the group or their setting so may not be able to appreciate the meanings they have.
- ❖ Studying groups on a small scale doesn't mean it can be a representation of any other social groups because everyone is different.
- ❖ Observations can sometimes have ethical problems if say there was no consent obtained when the observation was being carried out.
- ❖ Subjective method-The reliability of observational data collection methods is low because observations are often too personal and non-repeatable
- ❖ Hawthorne effect is increased

4) Non participant observation-is a research technique whereby the researcher watches the subjects of his/her study with their knowledge but without joining the group activities

Advantages of non-participant observation

- ❖ More ethical if done overtly- no ethical issues if people are aware they are being observed
- ❖ The researcher exerts minimal influence on group's actions

Disadvantages of non-participant observation

- ❖ Can lead to Hawthorne effect
- ❖ Time consuming/costly

Research Process according Kothari (2004)

➢ Research process consists of series of actions or steps necessary to effectively carry out research and the desired sequencing of these steps. These actions or steps are:

(i) Formulation of Research Problem

- ❖ At the very outset, the researcher must decide the general area of interest or aspect of a subject matter that he would like to inquire into and then research problem should be formulated.

(ii) Extensive literature survey

- ❖ Once the problem is formulated, the researcher should undertake extensive literature survey connected with the problem. For this purpose, the abstracting and indexing journals and published or unpublished bibliographies are the first place to go to academic journals, conference proceedings, government reports, books etc. must be tapped depending on the nature of the problem.

(iii) Development of Working Hypothesis

- ❖ After extensive literature survey, a researcher should state in clear terms the working hypothesis or hypotheses. Working hypothesis is a tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test its logical or empirical consequences. It's very important or it provides the focal point for research.

(iv) Preparing the research design

- ❖ After framing a hypothesis we have to prepare a research design i.e. we have to state the conceptual structure within which research would be conducted. The preparation of such a design facilitates research to be as efficient as possible yielding maximum information. In other words, the function of research design is to provide for the collection of relevant evidence with optimum effort, time and expenditure. But how all these can be achieved depends mainly on the research purpose

(v) Determining Sample Design

- ❖ The researcher must decide the way of selecting a sample or what is popularly known as the **sample design**
- ❖ The study cannot possibly include the entire population. so a smaller group is used to represent the population (a sample).
- ❖ Samples that use principles of random selection, where every unit in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample, have the best chance of reflecting the views and behaviors of the entire population of focus.
- ❖ Sample designs can be either probability or non-probability. With probability samples each element has a known probability of being included in the sample. In the non-probability samples, researchers are not allowed to determine unpublished bibliographies as academic journals, conference proceedings, government reports, books etc. must be tapped first depending on the nature of the problem.

(vi) Collecting the data

- ❖ There are several ways of collecting the appropriate data which differ considerably in context of cost, time and other resources at the disposal of the researcher. Primary data can be collected either through experiment or through survey. In case of survey, data can be collected by any one or more of the following ways; by observation, through personal interview, through telephonic interviews, by mailing of questionnaires or through schedules.

(vii) Execution of the project

- ❖ Execution of project is a very important step in the research process. If the execution of the project proceeds on correct lines, the data to be collected would be adequate and dependable .A careful watch should be kept for unanticipated factors in order to keep the survey as realistic as possible.

(viii) Analysis of data

- ❖ The analysis of data requires a number of closely related operations such as establishment of categories, the application of these categories to raw data through coding, tabulation and then drawing statistical inference. Analysis work after tabulation is generally based on the computation of various percentages; coefficients etc., by applying various well defined statistical formulae. In the process of analysis, relationships of differences supporting or conflicting with original or new hypothesis

should be subjected to tests of significance to
determine with what validity data can be said to indicate any conclusion.

(ix) Hypothesis-testing

- After analyzing the data, the researcher is in a position to test the hypothesis, if any, he had formulated earlier. Do the facts support the hypothesis or they happen to be contrary? This is the usual question which is to be answered by applying various tests like Chi square test , 't' test, 'F' test etc. F tests have been developed by statisticians for the purpose. Hypothesis testing will result in either accepting the hypothesis or in rejecting it. If the researcher had no hypothesis to start with, generalizations established on the basis of data may be stated.

(x) Generalizations and Interpretation

- If a hypothesis is tested and upheld several times, it may be possible for the researcher to arrive at some generalization i.e. to build a theory. As a matter of fact, the real value of research lies in its ability to arrive at certain generalizations.
  Generalization is the ability to draw conclusions from specific data and to apply them to a broader population. If the researcher had no hypothesis to start with, he might seek to explain his findings on the basis of some theory. It is known as interpretation.

(xi) Preparation of the Report or the Thesis:

- Finally, the researcher has to prepare the report of what has been done by him. The layout of the report should be as follows; the preliminary pages, the main text and end matter. The preliminary pages carry title, acknowledgements and foreword and then index. The main text of the report should have introduction, review of literature and methodology

Criteria of Good Research

- One expects scientific research to satisfy the following criteria:
  1. The purpose of the research should be clearly defined and common concepts be used.
  2. The research procedure used should be described in sufficient detail to permit another researcher to repeat the research for further advancement, keeping the continuity of what has already been attained
  3. The procedural design of the research should be carefully planned to yield results that are as objective as possible.
  4. The researcher should report with complete frankness, flaws in procedural design and estimate their effects upon the findings.
  5. The analysis of data should be sufficiently adequate to reveal its significance and the methods of analysis used should be appropriate. The validity and reliability of the data should be checked carefully.
  6. Conclusions should be confined to those justified by the data of the research and limited to those for which the data provide an adequate basis.
  7. Greater confidence in research is warranted if the researcher is experienced, has a good reputation in research and is a person of integrity
- Therefore:
  - *Good research is systematic*: It means that research is structured with specified steps to be taken in a specified sequence in accordance with the well-defined set of rules.
  - *Good research is logical:* This implies that research is guided by the rules of logical reasoning and the logical process of induction and deduction are of great value in carrying out research.

- *Good research is empirical:* It implies that research is related basically to one or more aspects of a real situation and deals with concrete data that provides a basis for external validity to research results.
- *Good research is replicable:* This characteristic allows research results to be verified by replicating the study and thereby building a sound basis for decisions.

Factors influencing choice of Research Method(s)

Practical	Theoretical	Ethical
➢ Time, money, location ,size of sample, funding ,nature of study group, researcher skill	➢ Researcher's aims, values, interests in topic, validity, reliability	➢ Confidentiality, privacy, value neutrality, cultural issues

1. Source of funding
2. Topic to be studied
3. Reliability- quantitative methods are regarded as more reliable because:
   - They produce standardized data in statistical form
   - Questionnaires can be used to test precise hypothesis which the researcher has devised

➢ Qualitative methods are less reliable because:
   - Data collection procedures can be unsystematic
   - Results are rarely quantified
   - There is no way of replicating a quantitative study

4. Validity- data are 'valid' if they provide a true picture of what is being studied. Data can be reliable without being valid. Studies can be replicated and produce the same results but those results may not be a valid measure of what the researcher intends to measure. For instance statistics on church attendance may be reliable but they do not necessarily give a true picture of religious commitment

➢ Qualitative methods lack validity because:
   - Statistical research methods may be easy to reproduce but they may not provide a true picture of social reality
   - They lack depth to describe accurately the meanings and motives that form the basis of social action
   - They use categories imposed on the social world-categories that may have little meaning or relevance to another members of society

5. Practicality-researchers sometimes are attracted to quantitative methods because of their practicality

➢ Quantitative methods are generally less time-consuming and require less personal commitment

➢ Qualitative research often has to be confined to the study of small numbers because of practical limitations

6. Specific research settings i.e. whether at school, street corner etc.

7. Amount of time needed to do research

Ethics in Sociological Research

- **Ethics** is the branch of philosophy concerned with distinguishing the right from the wrong.

1. **Protecting subjects from personal harm**-Sociologists must also make sure that the subjects taking part in a research project are not harmed, and they must stop their work right away if they suspect that any subject is at risk of harm.
2. **Respecting the subject's right to privacy and dignity (Confidentiality)**-Researchers are also required to protect the privacy of anyone involved in a research project, even if they come under pressure from authorities, such as the police or the courts, to release confidential information. Ethics require that sociologists protect the anonymity of those who provide information.
3. **Seeking informed consent when data are collected from research participants**-Researchers must also get the **informed consent** of participants, which means that the subjects must understand the responsibilities and risks that the research involves before agreeing to take part.
4. **Acknowledging research collaboration and assistance**.-Ethics condemn plagiarism—that is, stealing someone else's work.
5. **Familiarization**-Before beginning research in another country, an investigator must become familiar enough with that society to understand what people *there* are likely to regard as a violation of privacy or a source of personal danger
6. **Value Neutrality (Value Free)**- Max Weber ([1904] 1949) recognized that personal values would influence the questions that sociologists select for research. In his view, that was perfectly acceptable, but under no conditions could a researcher allow his or her personal feelings to influence the *interpretation* of data. In Weber's phrase, sociologists must practice **value neutrality**-not allowing researchers' personal feelings to influence the *interpretation* of data in their research.

- Value biases can influence research through:
  - Making researchers choose research topics which they think are important
    Examples:
    - Weber chose to study the advent of capitalism and bureaucracy because he saw them as the most important developments in western societies.
    - Marxists have shown their values in their studies of wealth , income and stratification
  - Making researcher choose what aspects of that topic to study
  - '' '' '' ''' '''' approach to be adopted

How sociologists can address the issue of values and bias in their research (objectivity)

- Accepting research findings even when the data run counter to their personal views, to theoretically based explanations, or to widely accepted beliefs. For example, Émile Durkheim challenged popular conceptions when he reported that social (rather than supernatural) forces were an important factor in suicide.

- Mentioning their own biases at the beginning of the piece of research so that this is clear to the reader
- Publishing not only one's own political views but also full details of the research so that
- **Replication**-repetition of research by other investigators. If other researchers repeat a study using the same procedures and obtain the same results, we gain confidence that the results are accurate (both reliable and valid).

Ethical violations examples

1. **Tuskegee Syphilis Study (*field experiment*)**

- The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of "untreated syphilis in the male negro."
- The study was conducted at the Tuskegee Institute in Macon County, Alabama, a historically Black college.
- For this study—begun in 1932 by the government's United States Health Service—a sample of about 400 Black males who were infected with the sexually transmitted disease syphilis (this was the "experimental" group) were allowed to go untreated medically for over forty years.
- Another 200 Black males who had not contracted syphilis were used as a control group.
- Untreated syphilis causes blindness, mental retardation, and death, and this is how many of the untreated Black men in the Tuskegee study fared over the period of forty-plus years
- In the 1950s, penicillin was discovered as an effective treatment for infectious diseases, including syphilis, and was widely available. Nonetheless, the scientists conducting the study decided *not* to give penicillin to the infected men in the study on the grounds that it would "interfere" with the study of the physical and mental harm caused by untreated syphilis!
- The U.S. government itself authorized the study to be continued until the early 1970s—that is, until quite recently.
- By the mid-1970s pressure from the public and the press caused the federal government to terminate the study, but by then it was too late to save approximately 100 men who had already died of the ravages of untreated syphilis, plus many others who were forced to live with major mental and physical damage.

2. **Protecting the Subjects: The Brajuha Research (*participant observation*)**

- Mario Brajuha, a graduate student at the State University of New York at Stony Brook, was doing participant observation of restaurant workers.
- He lost his job as a waiter when the restaurant where he was working burned down—a fire of "suspicious origin," as the police said.
- When detectives learned that Brajuha had taken field notes (Brajuha and Hallowell 1986), they asked to see them. Because he had promised to keep the information confidential, Brajuha refused to hand them over.
- When the district attorney subpoenaed the notes, Brajuha still refused. The district attorney then threatened to put Brajuha in jail. By this time, Brajuha's notes had become

rather famous, and unsavory characters—perhaps those who had set the fire—also wanted to know what was in them.

- They, too, demanded to see them, accompanying their demands with threats of a different nature. Brajuha found himself between a rock and a hard place.
- For two years, Brajuha refused to hand over his notes, even though he grew anxious and had to appear at several court hearings. Finally, the district attorney dropped the subpoena.

3. Misleading the Subjects: The Humphreys Research (*Covert observation*)

- Laud Humphreys, a classmate of mine at Washington University in St. Louis, was an Episcopal priest who decided to become a sociologist. For his Ph.D. dissertation, Humphreys (1971, 1975) studied social interaction in "tearooms," public restrooms where some men go for quick, anonymous oral sex with other men.
- Humphreys found that some restrooms in Forest Park, just across from our campus, were tearooms. He began a participant observation study by hanging around these restrooms. He found that in addition to the two men having sex, a third man—called a "watch queen"—served as a lookout for police and other unwelcome strangers.
- Humphreys took on the role of watch queen, not only watching for strangers but also observing what the men did. He wrote field notes after the encounters.
- Humphreys decided that he wanted to learn about the regular lives of these men.
- He came up with an ingenious technique: Many of the men parked their cars near the tearooms, and Humphreys recorded their license plate numbers.
- A friend in the St. Louis police department gave Humphreys each man's address. About a year later, Humphreys arranged for these men to be included in a medical survey conducted by some of the sociologists on our faculty.
- Disguising himself with a different hairstyle and clothing, Humphreys visited the men's homes. He interviewed the men, supposedly for the medical study. He found that they led conventional lives.
- Humphreys concluded that heterosexual men were also using the tearooms for a form of quick sex

Importance of Sociological Research in Zimbabwe

- **For social cohesion and unity**- sociological researches manifests the social tensions in the society and give a remedial solution e.g. the former President of Zimbabwe Robert Mugabe in 1981once tasked justice Enock Dumbutshena to inquire into the Matebeleland uprisings which later culminated into the Gukurahundi massacres.
- **For social planning**- research enables social planning for social growth. This will help in formulation of social policies .e.g. the new education curriculum was as a result of the Nziramasanga commission of inquiry which was commissioned by former president RG Mugabe in 1998 to review the future needs of the education system in Zimbabwe . The commission recommended that:
  - There should manpower development in vocational education
  - There was need to develop good citizenship and the philosophy of Unhu/Ubuntu
  - There was need to promote development of indigenous languages
- **Solution to social problems**-it unearths the causes of social problems and provide guide about their solution

- **Social prediction**- it helps to know the existence of causative factors and their magnitude and this facilitates prediction of results
- **Social control**- it is applied to society for bringing social order and control e.g. the Kgalema Motlante inquiry into the July 2018 post-election violence was set up to find the perpetrators of the violence and possible remedies to avoid such violence again

RESEARCH PROPOSAL WRITING

- It is a research plan
- It indicates your research direction
- Research Proposals come in different formats. However, the formats depend on the needs of the institutions, i.e. Business, Academic and Funding Agencies. It should be noted that there are nonetheless shared features to all the proposals. These features are reflected mainly in the Academic Oriented Proposals.

Topic

- Provide a brief and meaningful title to your project. It should show the area to be studied
- Your topic should reflect that your study will a ground breaking one. Avoid over-research issues. In addition, it must be Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Reliable and Time framed (SMART).

Example of topics

- *T1-Connection between academic performance and teacher's motivation. A case of Murereka high school, Makonde district*
- *T2-Effects of family background on child performance at school. A case of Fiona primary school, Makonde district*

Introduction

- introduction section provides a description of the basic facts and importance of the research area
- What is your research area, the motivation of research
- Attempt to persuade, inform or indicate to the reader of the need for the research. .e.g. on T2 one might point out how the information may be used for donor funding
- This is an attempt to convince the reader that the research will be useful, interesting, or significant for the academic community, and may be suggestive of the research 'gap' which arises from the following literature review.
- The previous research has mistakenly assumed that….or Although most experts in the field believe …., they have overlooked …
- None of the previous research has examined ……
- Research gap for T2 maybe that previous researches have been focusing on urban/ peri-urban primary schools but one intends to focus on remote primary schools

Background

- give background information on the topic e.g. on T2 some previous researches might have been done to secondary schools but you intend to focus on primary schools
- This situates the research problem into relevant context

Statement of the Problem (a paragraph, ½ page)

- What is it that bothers you about the issue that you want to carry out research? e.g. on T2 you may point out the low performance levels on primary schools located in remote areas

- What is the specific problem in that research area that you will address e.g. on T2 the research will address low performance levels of learners by sourcing donor funding to provide learning resources

Research Objectives

- **Overall Objective (AIM)-**It refers to broad developmental goal within which the project/research proposal falls. It provides a short statement of the development goal being pursued by the research. What is the study aim? One aim which summarises the whole research
- **Specific objectives-**These state precisely what you intend to do.
- Research objectives are a re-working of the statement of the problem. A well-worded objective will be SMART, i.e Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, and Time bound given the available resources. In addition, a research objective should be Relevant, Feasible, Logical, Observable, Unequivocal and Measurable.
- They start with action verbs such as to: assess; explore; identify; determine; establish; compare; verify; calculate; describe; and, analyse.
- The objectives should be between 3 -5 e.g. 1) to develop awareness on how child background may affect child educational attainment 2) suggest solutions to these problems

Research Questions

3- 5 research questions e.g. what tasks do you do at home before coming to school? What time do you wake up? How often do your parents buy you books, uniform? Do you have any?

Significance of the Study (paragraph)

- Justify your research
- A justification explains the importance of your study; why it is worthwhile undertaking
- You can also use the deductive reasoning approach to explain the significance of your study. This means that you can start by highlighting the contribution of your study broadly and then taper off gradually to a specific group or person.

Brief Literature Review (2 pages)

- provide a summary of previous related research on the research problem and their strength and weakness and a justification of your research
- What is known/what have been done by others? And, why your research is still necessary
- argue for the validity of your area of research in terms of its need to address a 'gap'

Conceptual/theoretical Framework (which lens are you using to look at your problem e.g. for T2 Marxism)

- A conceptual framework is based on concepts adopted from theories related to the research topic, empirical observation/studies and existing theories.

Methodology (1-2 pages)

- Is it qualitative or quantitative or mixed methods
- Population and study sample include sample size

Sampling Techniques

- how you will select your sample e.g. random, systematic ,stratified, purposive e.t.c
- Research instruments to be used in the study e.g. questionnaires, interview guides, observation guide
- Data collection/generation procedures describe the steps you will follow in collecting data
- Data analysis a description of how you will analyze your data
- Ethics -such as risks and benefits to the researcher and participants, confidentiality, written

informed consent, voluntary participation etc. You need to include informed consent form as an appendix to the proposal

Delimitations of the Study

- the area under study,/study site e.g. Fiona Makonde district
- description of the area under study

Limitations of the Study

- Possible challenges likely to be faced when doing a research e.g. funding and its effects on your research. remoteness of the area
- Suggest how you will overcome them

Definition of Terms- define key terms in your proposal e.g. qualiatative, quantitative

Conclusion- highlight major issues in your research proposal

References- acknowledgement of sources used e.g. in your literature review, methodology etc.

TOPIC 8: GENDER

Sex and Gender identity

- **Sex** refers to physical or physiological differences between males and females, including both primary sex characteristics (the reproductive system) and secondary characteristics such as height and muscularity. **Gender** refers to behaviors, personal traits, and social positions that society attributes to being female or male.
- *Primary sex characteristics* consist of a vagina or a penis and other organs related to reproduction.
- *Secondary sex characteristics* are the physical distinctions between males and females that are not directly connected with reproduction. These characteristics become clearly evident at puberty when males develop more muscles and a lower voice, and gain more body hair and height, while females develop breasts and form more fatty tissue and broader hips.
- A baby boy who is born with male genitalia will be identified as male. As he grows, however, he may identify with the feminine aspects of his culture. Since the term sex refers to biological or physical distinctions, characteristics of sex will not vary significantly between different human societies. Generally, persons of the female sex, regardless of culture, will eventually menstruate and develop breasts that can lactate.
- Characteristics of gender, on the other hand, may vary greatly between different societies. For example, in Zimbabwean culture, it is considered feminine (or a trait of the female gender) to wear a dress or skirt. However, in many Middle Eastern, Asian, and some African cultures, dresses or skirts (often referred to as sarongs, robes, or gowns) are considered masculine
- The sociological significance of gender is that it is a device by which society controls its members. Gender sorts us, on the basis of sex, into different life experiences. It opens and closes doors to property, power, and even prestige. Like social class, gender is a structural feature of society (Henslin 2012).

Sex	Gender
❖ The anatomical and physiological differences that define male and female bodies.	❖ The psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females
❖ Characteristics will not vary significantly between different human societies.	❖ Varies from society to society
❖ refers to male or female	❖ refers to masculinity or femininity
❖ you inherit your sex	❖ you learn your gender as you are socialized into the behaviors and attitudes your culture

Gender Roles

- **Gender roles** are attitudes and activities that a society links to each sex. A culture that defines males as ambitious and competitive encourages them to seek out positions of leadership and play team sports. To the extent that females are defined as deferential and emotional, they are expected to be supportive helpers and quick to show their feelings (Macionis 2012)
- They are the differences of behavior which are expected from men and women

Male and female roles

Female roles	Male roles
❖ Being gentle ❖ Emotional ❖ Wearing dresses, skirts make up ❖ Being better at cooking and dressmaking ❖ Domestic chores e.g kutwa among the Tonga ❖ Mothering	❖ Tough and physical ❖ Less emotional ❖ Regarding clothes and their appearance as less important ❖ Doing manual jobs ❖ Initiating and controlling all sexual relations.

The social construction of gender roles

- Gender differences in Behavior: Biology or Culture?
- Is gender a matter of nature or nurture?

- There are some biological differences between women and men, but looking at gender sociologically quickly reveals the extraordinary power of social and cultural influences on things often popularly seen as biologically fixed.

Gender Socialization/nurture as supported by theories of socialization

- Sociologist Debra Gimlin argues that bodies are "the surface on which prevailing rules of a culture are written" (Gimlin 2002: 6).

- Understanding gender as a social construction means thinking about the many ways that gender is produced through social interaction instead of seeing it as a fixed attribute of individuals (Connell 2009).
- The experiences of transgender people support the role of culture. **Transgender** people are
  those who live as a gender different from that to which they were assigned at birth (Schilt 2011). Their experiences show how powerful the social norms are to conform to gender expectations (Westbrook and Schilt 2014; Connell 2010, 2012).
- Transgender males are males who have such a strong emotional and psychological connection to the feminine aspects of society that they identify their gender as female. The parallel connection to masculinity exists for transgender females.
- There are different agents of gender socialization: family, peers, children's play, schooling, religious training, mass media, and popular culture, to name a few (*refer to previous notes on socialization for more*).

1. **The Family-** Soon after birth, family members welcome infants into the "pink world" of girls or the "blue world" of boys (Bernard, 1981).
   - Parents even send gender messages in the way they handle infants. One researcher at an English university presented an infant dressed as either a boy or a girl to a number of women; her subjects handled the "female" child tenderly, with frequent hugs and caresses, and treated the "male" child more roughly, often lifting him up high in the air or
     bouncing him on a knee (Bonner, 1984; Tavris & Wade, 2001).
2. **The Peer Group-** Peer groups teach additional lessons about gender.
   - After spending a year observing children at play, Janet Lever (1978) concluded that boys favor team sports that have complex rules and clear objectives such as scoring runs or
     making touchdowns. Such games nearly always have winners and losers, reinforcing masculine traits of aggression and control.
   - Girls, too, play team sports. But, Lever explains, girls also play hopscotch, jump rope, or simply talk, sing, or dance. These activities have few rules, and rarely is victory the ultimate goal. Instead of teaching girls to be competitive, Lever explains, female peer groups promote the interpersonal skills of communication and cooperation, presumably
     the basis for girls' future roles as wives and mothers.
   - Boys who engage in behavior that is associated with girls are likely to be ridiculed by friends—more so than are girls who play or act like boys (Sandnabba and Ahlberg 1999).Girls who behave like boys may be called "tomboys," whilst boys who behave like girls are called "sissies"
3. **School-** In high school, for instance, more girls than boys learn secretarial skills and take vocational classes such as cosmetology, Food and Nutrition. Classes in woodworking and auto mechanics attract mostly young men
4. **The Mass Media-** the sexualization of women is so extensive in the media. There is "massive exposure to portrayals that sexualize women and girls and teach girls that

women are sexual objects". Men are also seen as more formidable, stereotyped in strong, independent roles.

5. **Religion** (*refer to notes on religion*)

Examples of culture influence on gender differences

(a) Margaret Mead's Research

- ❖ The anthropologist Margaret Mead carried out groundbreaking research on gender. If gender is based on the biological differences between men and women, she reasoned, people everywhere should define "feminine" and "masculine" in the same way; if gender is cultural, these concepts should vary.
- ❖ Mead (1963, orig. 1935) studied three societies in New Guinea.

- In the mountainous home of the Arapesh, Mead observed men and women with remarkably similar attitudes and behavior. Both sexes, she reported, were cooperative and sensitive to others—in short, what our culture would label "feminine."
- Moving south, Mead then studied the Mundugumor, whose headhunting and cannibalism stood in striking contrast to the gentle ways of the Arapesh. In this culture, both sexes were typically selfish and aggressive, traits we define as "masculine."
- Finally, traveling west to the Tchambuli, Mead discovered a culture that defined females and males differently. But the Tchambuli *reversed* many of our notions of gender: Females were dominant and rational, and males were submissive, emotional, and nurturing toward children. Based on her observations, Mead concluded that culture is the key to gender differences, because what one society defines as masculine another may see as feminine.

(b) George Murdock's Research

- ❖ In a broader review of research on more than 200 preindustrial societies, George Murdock (1937) found some global agreement about which tasks are feminine and which are masculine.

- Hunting and warfare, Murdock concluded, generally fall to men, and home centered tasks such as cooking and child care tend to be women's work. With their simple technology, preindustrial societies apparently assign roles reflecting men's and women's physical characteristics. With their greater size and strength, men hunt game and protect the group; because women bear children, they do most of the work in the home.
- But beyond this general pattern, Murdock found much variety. Consider agriculture: Women did the farming in about the same number of societies as men; in most, the two sexes shared this work. When it came to many other tasks, from building shelters to tattooing the body, Murdock found that societies of the world were as likely to turn to one sex as the other

<u>Biological factors/nature</u>

- ➢ **Biological determinism** refers to explanations that attribute complex social phenomena to physical characteristics. The argument that men are more aggressive because of hormonal

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differences (in particular, the presence of testosterone) is a biologically determinist argument.

- Arguments based on biological determinism assume that differences between women and men are "natural" and, presumably, resistant to change.
- some authors hold that aspects of human biology - ranging from hormones to chromosomes to brain size to genetics - are responsible for innate differences in behavior between men and women
- According to Andersen et al (2017) a person's sex identity is established at the moment of conception. The mother contributes an X chromosome to the embryo; the father, an X or Y.
- Henslin (2012) notes that at the very instant the egg is fertilized, our sex is determined. Each of us receives twenty-three chromosomes from the ovum and twenty three from the sperm. The egg has an X chromosome. If the sperm that fertilizes the egg also has an X chromosome, we become a girl (XX). If the sperm has a Y chromosome, we become a boy (XY)
- The Y chromosome in males starts to promote the production of testosterone and other androgens (male sex hormones) (Sammons, 2013). These androgens cause the male to develop testes and a penis instead of ovaries and a uterus. The androgens also cause the male brain to develop differently from the female. A bio psychologist would argue that it is these differences in brain development, and the differences in brain activity caused by the secretion of androgens in adulthood, that cause men to behave differently from women (e.g. acting more aggressively) (Sammons, 2013).
- Andersen et al (2017) further notes that boys at birth tend to be slightly longer and weigh more than girls. As adults, men tend to have a lower resting heart rate, higher blood pressure, and higher muscle mass and muscle density. These physical differences contribute to the tendency for men to be physically stronger than women, but this can be altered, depending on level of physical activity.
- Women and men produce different sex hormones in varying quantities. Besides affecting the functioning of various bodily organs (e.g. causing the menstrual cycle in women) these sex hormones appear to have an effect on behavior (Sammons, 2013). Testosterone, which is produced in greater quantities by men, affects several types of behavior, some of which are regarded as 'typically male'. For example, Dabbs et al (1995) found that violent offenders had higher testosterone levels than non-violent offenders and Coates et al (2008) found that financial traders with higher testosterone levels took greater risks (Sammons, 2013).
- Alice Rossi, a feminist sociologist and former president of the American Sociological Association, has suggested that women are better prepared biologically for "mothering" than are men. Rossi (1977, 1984) says that women are more sensitive to the infant's soft skin and to their nonverbal communications. She stresses that the issue is not either biology or society. Instead, nature provides biological predispositions, which are then overlaid with culture.

Example of biological influences on gender differences

(a) A Medical Accident.

- The drama began in 1963, when 7-month-old identical twin boys were taken to a doctor for a routine circumcision (Money and Ehrhardt 1972). The inept physician, who was using a heated needle, turned the electric current too high and accidentally burned off the penis of one of the boys.
- The damage was irreversible. The parents were told that their boy could never have sexual relations. After months of soul-searching and tearful consultations with experts, the parents decided that their son should have a sex-change operation. When he was 22 months old, surgeons castrated the boy, using the skin to construct a vagina.
- The parents then gave the child a new name, Brenda, dressed him in frilly clothing, let his hair grow long, and began to treat him as a girl. Later, physicians gave Brenda female steroids to promote female pubertal growth (Colapinto 2001).
- At first, the results were promising(4 years old)
- Despite this promising start and her parents' coaching, Brenda did not adapt well to femininity. She preferred to mimic her father shaving, rather than her mother putting on makeup. She rejected dolls, favoring guns and her brother's toys.
- She liked rough-and-tumble games and insisted on urinating standing up. Classmates teased her and called her a "cavewoman" because she walked like a boy.
- At age 14, she was expelled from school for beating up a girl who teased her. Despite estrogen treatment, she was not attracted to boys, and at age 14, in despair over her inner turmoil, she was thinking of suicide.
- In a tearful confrontation, her father told her about the accident and her sex change. "All of a sudden everything clicked. For the first time, things made sense, and I understood who and what I was," the twin said of this revelation. David (his new name) then had testosterone shots and, later, surgery to partially reconstruct a penis.
- At age 25, he married a woman and adopted her children (Diamond and Sigmundson 1997; Colapinto 2001). There is an unfortunate end to this story, however. In 2004, David committed suicide.

■ **In Sum:** The findings indicate that human behavior is not a matter of either nature or nurture, but of the two working together. Some behavior that sociologists usually assume to be due entirely to socialization is apparently influenced by biology. We would not exist without our biological makeup, but we would not be who we are without society and culture. As sociologist Cecilia Ridgeway puts it, gender is a "substantial, socially elaborated edifice constructed on a modest biological foundation" (2011: 9).

Gender equity and equality

- **Gender equality** refers to the valuation of men and women and sameness of enjoyment of rights, power, opportunities, treatment and control of resources between males and females in the society e.g. enjoyment of same voting rights

- **Gender inequality** therefore entails a situation whereby women and men are not equal in terms of their valuation in opportunities, treatment, power etc. The causes of such inequalities are grounded in the nature vs. nurture debate
- **Gender equity** is a process of achieving fairness and justice among men and women e.g. fairness in enrolment into university
- Gender equity leads to gender equality
- **Gender discrimination** refer to a prejudice or discrimination that is based on a person's sex or gender
- **Examples and forms of discrimination include:**

- Discrimination in employment where women are not employed in certain areas of employment such as construction, mechanics
- Wage discrimination where men and women have the same rank at work but given different salaries
- Maternity and pregnancy discrimination at work where women are not allowed to get pregnant at work or threatened with dismissal if they fall pregnant e.g. nursing and army recruitment
- Sexual harassment e.g. carpet interview, sex for marks, sex for promotion
- Gender based violence
- Sexist comments e.g. all women are prostitutes or all men are same or men are dogs

Gender Policies in Zimbabwe

- Maintenance Act (1999)
  - It governs the financial or material support towards children under 18 years and those above 18 years but not yet self-sufficient. Either parent can claim maintenance from each other. i.e. a woman can claim child maintenance from the father of the child or vice versa
  - It brings parents on equal footing in breadwinner ship
- Administration of Estate Act (1997)
  - It regulates the distribution of a deceased person's estate within the confines of the law
  - The law provides that upon the death of a person his/her family, namely his wife/husband and children shall have the right of use of property
  - It equally protects surviving spouses from property confiscation by close relatives
- Education Act (1997)
  - It is a non-discriminatory policy which requires that 'all students, regardless of race, religion , gender, creed and disability have access to basic or primary education (up to grade 7)
  - The main challenge in sustaining these achievements is school drop outs.
  - . School dropout is caused by long distances travelled especially in newly resettled areas, incapacity to pay fees mostly due to orphan hood and unemployment of guardians, pregnancy and early marriage. Gender stereotyping of subjects in secondary school level, and courses at tertiary level, also presents challenges.
- Labor Act (Chapter 28.01)

- It states that no employer or person shall discriminate against any employee on grounds of race, tribe, place of origin, political opinion, color, creed or sex in relation to:
  - ✓ The advertisement of employment
  - ✓ Recruitment for employment
  - ✓ Determination or allocation of wages, salaries, accommodation, leave

➢ Domestic Violence Act (2007)- *refer to previous notes on Domestic Violence Act [Chapter 5:16] Act No. 24 of 2006)*

➢ Quota System

- Provide for equal representation of women in parliament through the appointment of 60 additional non constituency female legislators (section 124 (b) of the constitution)
- However the provision ends in 2023, a development that has been met with apprehension by majority of women. A gender specialist Virginia Muwanigwa reiterated, adding that there was need to extent the period for proportional representation to support and encourage the participation of more women (Chronicle 28 march 2018)

➢ Sexual Offences Act (2001)

- Protects women from sexual abuse and criminalizes marital rape and willful transmission of HIV and AIDS.
- This protects women who are the most vulnerable group against sexual abuse

➢ According to THE NATIONAL GENDER POLICY (2013-2017) post 2004, the Government of Zimbabwe pursued a number of gender responsive economic policies and programmes. The main ones were:

(i) the Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy (ZEDS) (2007 – 2010);
(ii) Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP I and STERP II (2009 – 2010)
(iii) Mid Term Plan (MTP) (2011 – 2015);
(iv) Gender-Responsive Economic Policy Management Initiative (GERPMI); and
(v) The Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework (BBWEEF).

These actions have yielded mixed results as follows:

- *Poverty*: Zimbabwe is no exception to the global increase in poverty levels where women are poorer than men. 68% of female headed households in Zimbabwe live under the Total Consumption Poverty Line according to a 2010 UNDP Report.
- *Trade and industry*: Although there is generally lack of statistics, reports indicate limited participation of women in the formal trade sector
- *Employment:* Statistics show the limited access to decent jobs by women:
  - ✓ According to the 2011 Labour Force Survey (LFS), the total employment to population ratio is lower for females (72.3%) compared to males (83.9%).
  - ✓ 70% of agriculture labour, characterised by lowest wages, is provided by women. The share of women in wage or paid employment in the non agricultural sector in relation to total wage employment in the non agricultural sector was 24%.
  - ✓ Real income of women is three times less than that of men, and women have a higher structural unemployment rate of 70% compared to 56% for men.

- ✓ The Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey 2010-11 shows that 37 percent of women, as compared to 62 percent of men, are formally employed.

- *Control and access to resources*: Latest statistics on the Land Reform Programme from the University of Zimbabwe revealed that women constitute 18% of beneficiaries under A1 and 12 % under A2 falling far short of the gender parity ideal.

➢ Notable progress towards women's economic empowerment include among others:
- Establishment of a Women's Fund supported by Treasury.
- Development and implementation of Women's Savings and Lending Schemes by various development agencies.
- Launch of Women in Business platforms and Women's Associations in key economic sectors and nurturing of partnerships between these platforms and the Government

Women and Employment

➢ Employment influence the social status of women in the following ways:
- ❖ when women become wage earners, they can gain power in the family structure and create more democratic arrangements in the home e.g. they can decide together with the husband on family financial issues
- ❖ There will be removal of gender stratification. **Gender stratification** refers to the hierarchical distribution of social and economic resources according to gender .e.g. more women become motivated to be employed
- ❖ Promotion of sexual freedom- women's control over their sexuality and reproduction will be enhanced .e.g. some professions like nursing and army training prohibit women to become pregnant during the course, this give them autonomy over reproduction in the family
- ❖ Reduced sexual violence- patriarchy decreases as women ceases to be always at home depending on the husband. This reduces violence against women in the form of rape, domestic abuse, sexual harassment, and pornography

➢ However there are some problems faced by Zimbabwean women in employment
- ❖ Men still occupy the highest positions of organizational power
- ❖ Men are found in highly skilled manual jobs than females
- ❖ Gender stereotyping. **Gender stereotyping** involves overgeneralizing about the attitudes, traits, or behavior patterns of women or men. For example, women may be thought of as too timid or weak to ride a motorcycle. Therefore women may not be believed to be good leaders in an organization. Gender stereotypes form the basis of sexism. **Sexism** refers to prejudiced beliefs that value one sex over another.
- ❖ Absenteeism due to pregnancy, domestic care giving issues like caring for the sick
- ❖ Sexual harassment e.g. carpet interviews to gain promotion favors

➢ To address such challenges, organizations can:
- ❖ Implement Affirmative action/positive discrimination e.g. setting aside some positions for women
- ❖ Implementing paternity leave together with maternity leave to ensure both parents share the child rearing responsibilities
- ❖ *Refer to gender policies for more*

Gender theories

Biological view

- It supports the view that human innate(natural) character affects their behaviors largely
- This view suggests there is no distinction between sex and gender, thus biological sex creates gendered behavior
- Gender is determined by two biological factors: hormones and chromosomes
- Hormones are chemical substances secreted by glands throughout the body and carried in bloodstream
- Same sex hormones occur in both men and women, but differ in amounts. Testosterone is a sex hormone is more present in males than females hence it affects their behavior different
- Testosterones can cause typically male behaviors such as aggression, competitiveness, higher sexual drive etc.

The social perspective

- Ann Oakley(1974) believes that gender roles are a result of social construction rather than biological driven
- Oakley asserts that no matter what biological differences are there among male and females it is one's culture which creates masculine and feminine behavior
- She blamed socialization is constructing feminine roles in the following ways:
  - Through manipulation-mothers give more attention on the beauty e.g *kurukwa* (hair platting) of the girl child and dress them in feminine clothes
  - Through canalization- boys are given toys that encourage aggressiveness e.g. toy guns, toy cars while girls are given dolls which rehearse their expected duties as mothers and house wives
  - Verbal appellation- models boys to become tough whilst girls are modelled to be soft. E.g. "boys do not cry" ; "that's my smart and good girl"

Social learning theory

- Mischel (1986) asserts that environmental influences like parent modelling, peer imitation and media plays a crucial role in explaining gender role development
- Reprimanding roles have been one of the causes of gender roles framing e.g. in case a boy wears a skirt he is harshly told not to wear women's clothes
- Reward and punishment to align child to proper gender roles accepted within a society creates feminine and masculine behaviors e.g. colors are sex categorized where pink is associated with females and blue with males
- Scholars like Bandura (1987) asserts that children can learn sex portrayed behaviors from the media, for example, the watching of violent films (action movies) in which actors are mostly men , has been seen to increase aggression among boys more than girls. E.g. in many localities boys try to reproduce wrestling tactics to each other after watching it which portray violent behavior

Psychoanalytic theory

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- This theory sees gender development as largely due to an unconscious process governed by feelings and emotions
- Freud (1964) the proponent of this theory asserts that children begin to notice and focus on genitals at about 3 years and this marks the beginning of a sexual psychosexual development period which is called the phallic stage
- Both sexes now start to know that a boy has a penis and girls do not. Freud raised the issue of penis envy, in which young girls, after realizing that they they do not have a penis like their counterparts, start to envy it.
- Soon girls start to realize that their fathers have penis too and mothers not. During this period children start to to have feelings for the opposite sex parent and feel jealousy and resentful to the same sex parent
- Freud called this the Oedipus conflict (named after Oedipus who killed his father and married his mother due to strong psychosexual feelings)
- As children mature, they later align to their similar sex parent, modelling their behaviors, attitudes and personalities identical to their same sex parents

Sociological Perspectives on Gender

1. **Functionalist Perspective**

(a) Social stability-Functionalists maintain that gender differentiation has contributed to overall social stability.

- Sociologists Talcott Parsons and Robert Bales (1955) argued that to function most effectively, the family requires adults who specialize in particular roles.
- They viewed the traditional gender roles as arising out of the need to establish a division of labor between marital partners.
- Thus, the anthropologist George Murdock saw it as both practical and convenient that women should concentrate on domestic and family responsibilities while men work outside the home (Giddens 2009).

(b) Social Integration-Parsons and Bales contended that women take the expressive, emotionally supportive role and men the instrumental, practical role, with the two complementing each other.

- **Expressiveness-**denotes concern for the maintenance of harmony and the internal emotional affairs of the family.
- **Instrumentality** refers to an emphasis on tasks, a focus on more distant goals, and a concern for the external relationship between one's family and other social institutions.

- According to this theory, women's interest in expressive goals frees men for instrumental tasks, and vice versa. Women become anchored in the family as wives, mothers, and household managers; men become anchored in the occupational world outside the home.
- Society encourages gender conformity by instilling in men and women a fear that straying too far from accepted standards of masculinity or femininity will cause rejection by the other sex. In simple terms, women learn to reject non-masculine men as sexually unattractive, and men learn to reject unfeminine women. In sum, gender integrates society both structurally (in terms of what we do) and morally (in terms of what we believe).

(c) Socialization-Gender plays an important part in socialization. Society teaches boys—presumably destined for the labor force—to be rational, self-assured, and competitive.

- John Bowlby (1953), who argued that the mother is crucial to the primary socialization of children. If the mother is absent, or if a child is separated from the mother at a young age a state referred to as *maternal deprivation* -the child runs a high risk of being inadequately socialized.
- This can lead to serious social and psychological difficulties later in life, including anti-social and psychopathic tendencies. Bowlby argued that a child's well-being and mental health can be best guaranteed through a close, personal and continuous relationship with its mother

Criticism of the functionalist perspective

- Feminists have sharply criticized claims to a biological basis to the sexual division of labor, arguing that there is nothing natural or inevitable about the allocation of tasks in society.
- Women are not prevented from pursuing occupations on the basis of any biological features; rather, humans are socialized into roles that are culturally expected of them.
- Parsons' view on the 'expressive' female has similarly been attacked by feminists and other sociologists who see such views as condoning the domination of women in the home. There is no basis to the belief that the 'expressive' female is necessary for the smooth operation of the family - rather, it is a role which is promoted largely for the convenience of men
- There is a steady stream of evidence to suggest that the maternal deprivation thesis is questionable - studies have shown that children's educational performance and personal development are in fact enhanced when both parents are employed at least part of the time outside the home.

2. Conflict Perspective

- According to conflict theory, society is a struggle for dominance among social groups (like women versus men) that compete for scarce resources.
- When sociologists examine gender from this perspective, we can view men as the dominant group and women as the subordinate group. According to conflict theory, social problems are created when dominant groups exploit or oppress subordinate groups.
- Friedrich Engels, a German sociologist, studied family structure and gender roles. Engels suggested that the same owner worker relationship seen in the labor force is also seen in the household, with women assuming the role of the proletariat.
- This is due to women's dependence on men for the attainment of wages, which is even worse for women who are entirely dependent upon their spouses for economic support.
- Contemporary conflict theorists suggest that when women become wage earners, they can gain power in the family structure and create more democratic arrangements in the home, although they may still carry the majority of the domestic burden, as noted earlier (Rismanand and Johnson-Sumerford 1998).
- According to Engels (1902, orig. 1884), capitalism makes male domination even stronger.

- First, capitalism creates more wealth, which gives greater power to men as income earners and owners of property.
- Second, an expanding capitalist economy depends on turning people, especially women, into consumers who seek personal fulfillment through buying and using products.
- Third, society assigns women the task of maintaining the home to free men to work in factories. The double exploitation of capitalism, as Engels saw it, lies in paying men low wages for their labor and paying women no wages at all.

3. Feminist Perspective

- According to Macionis (2012) although feminists disagree about many things, most support the following general principles:
- *Working to increase equality*- Feminism is critical of the status quo, pushing for change toward social equality for women and men.
- *Eliminating gender stratification*- Feminism opposes laws and cultural norms that limit the education, income, and job opportunities of women
- *Ending sexual violence*- feminists argue that patriarchy distorts the relationships between women and men, encouraging violence against women in the form of rape, domestic abuse, sexual harassment, and pornography (A. Dworkin, 1987; Freedman, 2002).
- *Promoting sexual freedom*- feminism supports women's control over their sexuality and reproduction. Most feminists also support a woman's right to choose whether to bear children or end a pregnancy, rather than allowing men—husbands, physicians, and legislators—to control their reproduction

■ **NB-** ***for types of feminism and their views on gender refer to notes on perspectives in sociology: feminism and social institutions, feminism and family***

4. Interactionist Perspective

- Symbolic interactionism aims to understand human behavior by analyzing the critical role of symbols in human interaction.
- This is certainly relevant to the discussion of masculinity and femininity. Imagine that you walk into a bank hoping to get a small loan for school, a home, or a small business venture. If you meet with a male loan officer, you may state your case logically by listing all the hard numbers that make you a qualified applicant as a means of appealing to the
  analytical characteristics associated with masculinity.
- If you meet with a female loan officer, you may make an emotional appeal by stating your good intentions as a means of appealing to the caring characteristics associated with femininity.
- When people perform tasks or possess characteristics based on the gender role assigned to them, they are said to be **doing gender**. This notion is based on the work of West and Zimmerman (1987).
- Whether we are expressing our masculinity or femininity, West and Zimmerman argue, we are always "doing gender." Thus, gender is something we do or perform, not something we are.

- Gender distinctions and “doing gender” are reflected in people’s everyday behavior. For example, a man “does masculinity” by opening a door for his girlfriend; she “does femininity” by consenting to his assistance.

TOPIC 9: SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

The concept of Stratification

- **Social stratification** refers to a society’s categorization of its people into rankings of socioeconomic tiers based on three major factors:
  - **Power**- degree to which individuals or groups can impose their will on others, with or without the consent of those others.
  - **Prestige** -Amount of esteem and honor associated with social positions, qualities of individual and life styles.
  - **Wealth and property**- material possessions defined as valuable in particular societies e.g. land, livestock, buildings, money etc.
- Other factors include:
  - income,
  - race,
  - education,
  - Age
  - Sex
  - Religion.
- Henslin (2012) supports this definition by saying social stratification is a system in which groups of people are divided into layers according to their relative property, power, and prestige.
- Individuals and groups enjoy differential (unequal) access to rewards based on their position within the stratification scheme. Thus, stratification can most simply be defined as structured inequalities between different groupings of people. It is useful to think of stratification as rather like the geological layering of rock in the earth's surface. Societies can be seen as consisting of 'strata' in a hierarchy, with the more favored at the top and the less privileged nearer the bottom(Giddens 2009)
- Social stratification is patterned social inequality. **Social inequality** describes a condition in which members of society have differing amounts of wealth, prestige, or power.

- Systems of stratification maybe closed or open. A closed system of stratification is one in which the social status is decided by birth right as opposed to personal accomplishments. In this type of system it does not matter how much wealth or knowledge one attains e.g. the Royal Family of England. This is characterized more by ascribed status. **Status** can be regarded as some position in a social system which has a particular role attached e.g. chief, professor. **Ascribed status** therefore is a social position assigned to a person by society without regard for the person's unique talents or characteristics.
- Open stratification is based primarily on economic criteria, particularly income. Social position is achieved through one's efforts. This is characterized more by achieved status. **Achieved status** is a social position that a person attains largely through his or her efforts. The boundaries between classes are more flexible than in the closed system. There is opportunity for social mobility and status can improve or decline. Class system in modern industrial society is best example of an open system of stratification.
- **Social hierarchy** is a set of ranked statuses. Some members of our society are regarded as the haves and others as the have-nots.
- There are four fundamental principles of stratification.
  - **Social stratification is a trait of society**- Neither the rich nor the poor created social
    stratification, yet this system shapes the lives of us all.
  - **Social stratification carries over from generation to generation**- The social standing of most people remains much the same over their lifetime. However some people, especially in high-income societies, do experience *social mobility*.
  - **Social stratification is universal but variable**- Social stratification is found everywhere however some societies contain more inequality than others
  - **Social stratification involves both inequality and beliefs**- Just as the details of inequality vary, the explanations of *why* people should be unequal differ from society to society

Forms of Social Stratification

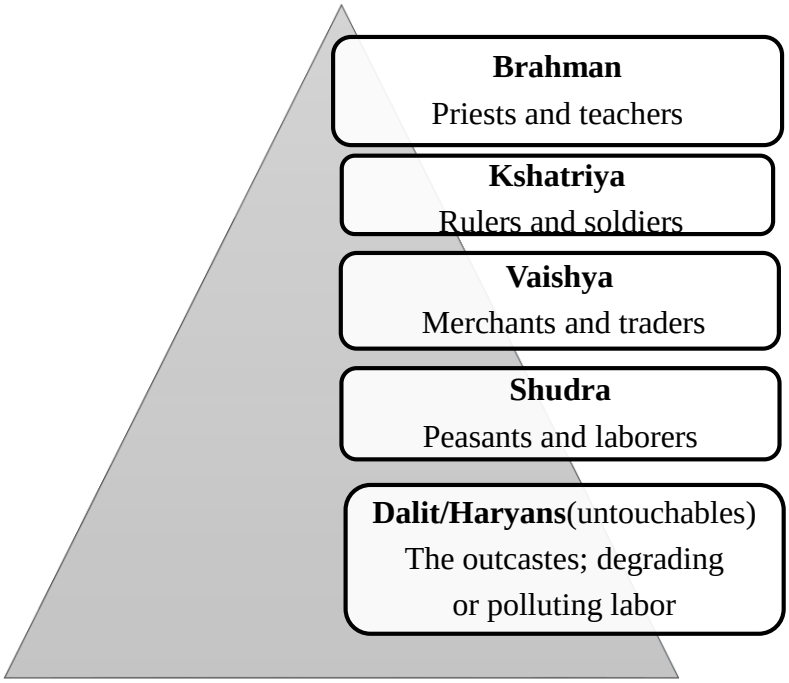
(a) Caste

- A **caste system** is social stratification based on ascription, or birth
- This is the form of social stratification whereby classification of people into different strata is made on the basis of usually religious and other very strong conventions/ traditions that are difficult to change. Some of the features of caste system include:
  - It is a very rigid and closed system. Membership in caste system is ascribed (given and birth). It is not based on achievements and efforts of an individual.
  - People belonging to the same stratum practice endogamy.
  - Intermarriage between strata is not permitted.
  - There are occupational differences between strata; i.e., each stratum is usually assigned a particular type of occupation.
  - Food sharing, social drinking, friendships, etc., are permitted only within a stratum, not between strata.
- In Zimbabwe ancient times, the Ndebele state was masked by caste.

Examples of caste system

i. India's Caste System

- Giddens (2009) notes that according to Hindu beliefs, there are four major castes, each roughly associated with broad occupational groupings.
- The four castes consist of
  - the *Brahmins* (scholars and spiritual leaders) on top,
  - followed by the *Ksyarriyas* (soldiersand rulers),
  - the *Vaisyas* (farmers and merchants)
  - the *Shudras* (labourers and artisans),
  - Beneath the four castes are those known as the 'untouchables' or *Dalits* ('oppressed people'), who - as their name suggests - are to be avoided at all costs. Untouchables are limited to the worst jobs in society, such as removing human waste, **and** they often resort to begging and searching in garbage for their food.
- In traditional areas of India, some members of higher castes still regard physical contact with untouchables to be so contaminating that a mere touch requires cleansing rituals.
- Henslin (2012) notes that if a *Dalit* touches someone of a higher caste, that person becomes unclean. Even the shadow of an untouchable can contaminate. Early morning and late afternoons are especially risky, for the long shadows of these periods pose a danger to everyone higher up the caste system.
- Consequently, Dalits are not allowed in some villages during these times. Anyone who becomes contaminated must follow ablution, or washing rituals, to restore purity
- The upper castes dread the upward mobility of the untouchables, sometimes resisting it even with murder and ritual suicide (Crossette 1996; Trofimov 2007).
- From personal observations in India, Henslin (2012) can add that in some villages Dalit children are not allowed in the government schools. If they try to enroll, they are beaten.
- India made it illegal to discriminate on the basis of caste in 1949, but aspects of the system remain in full force today, particularly in rural areas.
- Although the Indian government formally abolished the caste system in 1949, centuries old practices cannot be eliminated so easily, and the caste system remains part of everyday life in India (Beckett 2007).



India's Caste System

ii. South Africa during the apartheid

- ❖ Before its abolition in 1992, the South African caste system, termed apartheid, rigidly separated black Africans, Indians, 'coloureds' (people of mixed races) and Asians from whites.
- ❖ In this case, caste was based entirely on race. Whites, who made up only 15 per cent of the total population, controlled virtually all the country's wealth, owned most of the usable land, ran the principal businesses and industries and had a monopoly on political power, since blacks lacked the right to vote.
- ❖ Blacks - who made up three-quarters of the population – were segregated into impoverished *bantustans* (‚homelands') and were allowed out only to work for the white minority.
- ❖ Apartheid, widespread discrimination and oppression created intense conflict between the white minority and the black, mixed-race and Asian majority.
- ❖ Decades of often violent struggle against apartheid finally proved successful in the 1990s.

(b) Social Class

- ➢ A **class system** is a social ranking based primarily on economic position in which achieved characteristics can influence social mobility Schaefer (2012).
- ➢ Class determines the access different people have to these resources and puts groups in different positions of privilege and disadvantage.
- ➢ Each class has members with similar opportunities who tend to share a common way of life. Class also includes a cultural component in that class shapes language, dress, mannerisms, taste, and other preferences (Andersen et al 2017).

- Unlike caste systems, class systems are open. Researchers assign individuals to social classes on the basis of criteria such as occupation, education, income, and place of residence.
- The class system does not place rigid limitations on movement among social strata. One's class is determined by their relationship to the means of production. According to Karl Marx society is composed of two major classes, the Bourgeoisie and the Proletariat.
  - Bourgeoisie: - these are the owners of the means of production. (Ruling class, Capitalists or the haves).
  - Proletariat: - sell their labour to the owners of the means of production. (Working class, have-nots).
- Class relationships involve inequality and exploitation: - the two classes depend on each other with the ruling class exploiting the proletariat.
- Max Weber sees wealth, prestige and power as determinants of one's class as well.
- Classes differ from other forms of stratification in four main respects:
  - *Class systems are fluid*- the boundaries between classes are never clear-cut. There are no formal restrictions on intermarriage between people from different classes. In class systems, people have the option to form **exogamous marriages**, unions of spouses from different social categories.
  - *Class positions are in some part achieved*- Social mobility - movement upward and downward in the class structure - is more common than in the other types. **Meritocracy** is an ideal system based on the belief that social stratification is the result of personal effort—or merit—that determines social standing. High levels of effort will lead to a high social position, and vice versa
  - *Class is economically based*- Classes depend on economic differences between groups of individuals - inequalities in the possession of material resources. In the other types of stratification systems, non-economic factors (such as race in the former South African caste system) are generally most important
  - *Class systems are large-scale and impersonal*- In the other types of stratification systems, inequalities are expressed primarily in personal relationships of duty or obligation - between slave and master or lower- and higher-caste individuals. Class systems, by contrast, operate mainly through large-scale, impersonal associations. For instance, one major basis of class differences is in inequalities of pay and working conditions

(c) Estate

- In an **estate system** of stratification, the ownership of property and the exercise of power are monopolized by an elite class who have total control over societal resources.
- Historically, such societies were feudal systems where classes were differentiated into three basic groups:
  - The nobles (nobility, the wealthy families who ruled the society. This group owned the land, which was the source of wealth at that time).
  - The priesthood (consisted of the clergy. It also owned vast amounts of land and collected taxes from everyone who lived within the boundaries of a parish)

- ❖ The commoners (Known as *serfs*, they belonged to the land. If someone bought or inherited land, the serfs came with it. Serfs were born into the third estate, and they died within it, too).Commoners included peasants (usually the largest class group), small merchants, artisans, domestic workers, and traders

- Estate systems of stratification are most common in agricultural societies. Although such societies have been largely supplanted by industrialization, some societies still have a small but powerful landholding class ruling over a population that works mainly in agricultural production.

(d) Slavery

- In a **slave system**, society has two groups, one of citizens with citizen rights and the other that is more or less forcibly constrained by the stronger group and classified as property, an owner has the right to life or death over a slave members. Slaves themselves lack citizen status and some civil rights.
- Today, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which is binding on all members of the United Nations, prohibits slavery in all its forms. Yet more people are enslaved today than at any point in world history
- According to Giddens (2009), recent research has documented that people are taken by force and held against their will. From enslaved brick makers in Pakistan to sex slaves in Thailand and domestic slaves in relatively wealthy countries like the UK and France, slavery remains a significant human rights violation in the world today and against many people's assumption, seems to be increasing rather than diminishing (Bales 1999)
- The enslavement of children for work and sex is a problem in Africa, Asia, and South America (Trafficking in Persons Report 2008).

Consequences of Social Stratification on the Lives of Individuals

- Social stratification has crucial implications for the health and well-being of people. Social stratification is directly related to the issue of inequality, power imbalance etc, and these directly or indirectly influence the life chances of individuals in the social strata.
- Health status of individuals is among one of these life chances which can be significantly affected by one's location in the stratification system.
- The different stratification systems on the basis of age, sex, gender, ethnicity, religion, occupation, etc, directly or indirectly promote unequal chances of living standards.
- The key concepts in the relation between health and social stratification are the concepts of vulnerability, risk and hazard. **Vulnerability** is a sociological concept which refers to the "characteristics of individuals and social groups [along the lines of gender, age, ethnicity, occupation etc;] that determine [their capacity] to protect themselves, withstand and recover from disasters, including health hazards based on their access to material and non-material resources"

Life Chances

- **Life chances** are opportunities that people have of improving their life. These depend upon aspects of stratification such as social class, gender, and ethnicity.

- Max Weber saw class as being closely related to people's life chances—that is, their opportunities to provide themselves with material goods, positive living conditions, and favorable life experiences (Gerth and Mills 1958).
- People who share these aspects are likely to have similar life chances. Life chances include opportunities for:-
  - Employment
  - Education
  - Good health and well being
  - Housing
  - Social mobility
  - Life expectancy.
- These give the quality of an individual's life.
- Life chances are affected by:-
  - Laws that may limit human and civil rights of groups, preventing them from improving their life chances e.g. in S.A in the period of apartheid (1948-1994) segregation laws limited the life chances of black South Africans.
  - Fatalism: - an individual's belief that they cannot control what happens to them for example working class people may have this belief.
  - Gratification: - this relates ability to plan for the future.

i. **Deferred or delayed gratification** e.g. saving money for use in future or staying in school longer to get better paying jobs and better life chances.

ii. **Immediate gratification: -** sudden change for the better of an individual's life fortunes like inheriting money or winning a lottery where the individual spends the new wealth right away rather than being invested to ensure long term affluence.

- Life chances are also affected by aspects of social stratification like gender, social class and ethnic group e. g. Life expectancy is influenced in the following ways.

1. **Gender:** women tend to live longer than men , this is possibly because:
   - Men are more likely than women to be in risky situations that may cause accidental death including car accidents.
   - Men in many societies consume more alcohol, tobacco and other drugs than women, making them more likely to suffer from serious diseases.
   - Men's work exposes them to risks, such as risks of accidents in mining and factory work.
   - There are also biological reasons for differences between the life expectancy of men and women.
2. **Social class:** working class people have lower life expectancy than middle-class people in the same society. This is possibly because:
   - Working class occupations are more dangerous so there are more work related deaths.
   - Working class people may live in unhealthy environments, such as near sources of pollution or in damp cold houses.
   - Working class people may not be able to afford good health care.
   - Occupying a higher social class in a society improves your life chances and brings greater access to social rewards. In contrast, people in the lower social classes are forced to devote a larger proportion of their limited resources to the necessities of life
   - In times of danger, the affluent and powerful have a better chance of surviving than people of ordinary means. When the supposedly unsinkable British ocean liner *Titanic*

hit an iceberg in 1912, it was not carrying enough lifeboats to accommodate all passengers. Plans had been made to evacuate only first- and second-class passengers. About 62 percent of the first-class passengers survived the disaster. In contrast, only 25 percent of the third-class passengers survived. The first attempt to alert them to the need to abandon ship came well after other passengers had been notified (Schaefer (2012).

- Class position also affects people's vulnerability to natural disasters. In Zimbabwe, during the pre-cyclone Idai period in 2019, some more affluent people received early warnings faster than the less affluent and evacuated the Chipinge-Chimanimani area because they had access to televisions, radios and internet. They had money to travel with little preparation. Similarly, when Hurricane Katrina hit the Gulf Coast of the United States in 2005, affluent and poor people alike became its victims. However, poor people who did not own automobiles (100,000 of them in New Orleans alone) were less able than others to evacuate in advance of the storm.

3. **Ethnicity:** minority ethnic groups tend to be low down the socio-economic scale and so they are affected by the same factors as those that influence social class and life chances.

- Racial discrimination also comes in to affect access to services that enhance life expectancy .e.g. reports from south Africa that Zimbabweans are denied urgent health care
- Disease prevalence maybe influenced by ethnic factors.

Social Mobility

- The term **social mobility** refers to the movement of individuals and groups between different socio-economic positions (Giddens 2009).
- It also refers to the ability to change positions within a social stratification system. When people improve or diminish their economic status in a way that affects social class, they experience social mobility.

Types of social mobility

1. **Vertical social mobility-** it means movement up or down the socio-economic scale. Those who gain in property, income or status are said to be *upwardly mobile.* **Upward mobility** refers to an increase—or upward shift—in social class .e.g. In the United States, people applaud the rags-to-riches achievements of celebrities like Jennifer Lopez or Michael Jordan. Oprah Winfrey grew up in poverty in rural Mississippi before becoming a powerful media personality

- If movement is upwards, then it means success for the individual or individuals involved. A couple whose parents were unskilled workers may become educated and be able to afford a private house instead of renting as their parents did, such a couple is said to experience upward social mobility.
- Those who move in the opposite direction are *downwardly mobile*. **Downward mobility** indicates a lowering of one's social class. Some people move downward because of business setbacks, unemployment, or illness. Dropping out of school, losing a job, or

getting a divorce may result in a loss of income or status and, therefore, downward social mobility.

2. **Horizontal/lateral social mobility-** individual in this case moves within one social stratum, there is no success or failure on the part of the individual. What has only happened is change of social position but the positions will be of the same prestige and power as what happens when one changes employment without promotion or demotion e.g. in Zimbabwe, from being Teacher to a Nurse.
3. **Intergenerational social mobility-** this social movement experienced by family members from one generation to the next. It involves changes in the social position of children relative to their parents. Thus, a plumber whose father was a physician provides an example of downward intergenerational mobility. A film star whose parents were both factory workers illustrates upward intergenerational mobility.
4. **Intra generational social mobility-** is the movement of individuals within their life time. Intra generational mobility involves changes in social position within a person's adult life. A woman who begins work as a teacher's aide and eventually becomes superintendent of the school district experiences upward intra generational mobility. A man who becomes a taxicab driver after his accounting firm goes bankrupt undergoes downward intra generational mobility

Causes of social mobility

- Occupational change e.g. the child of a laborer may become an artisan or a technician
- Educational change e.g. scholarship to a working class child. Education represents an important means of intergenerational mobility. A person who was born into a poor family but who graduates from college has a one in five chance of entering the top fifth of all income
  earners as an adult (Isaacs et al. 2008).
- Individual motivation and aspiration e.g. motivation to succeed

The measurement of social mobility

- Measurement of social mobility is usually based on occupation
- The extent of social mobility is usually described in terms of:
  - *Long-range mobility*, which is movement of two or more occupational groups up or down the social scale .e.g. a man is working as a doctor, and his father was a labourer on a building site(intergenerational) and the extent is long range
  - *Short-range mobility* ,which is movement up or down by only one occupational group
  - *Self-recruitment*, the situation when children are in the same occupational group as their parents e.g. if the man fails to be a doctor but became a labourer yet the father was a labourer as well

Problems in measuring social class using occupation

- In measuring social mobility, certain problems arise:
  - Assuming that all non-manual work is 'higher' than manual work yet manual workers (blue-collar workers)earn more than routine white-collar workers
  - Overtime the status and significance of certain jobs change

- It ignore the fact that some people in similar occupations may have very different backgrounds and resources .e.g. a teacher from a rich family, who is given regular financial help by his/her family is in a very different situation from a teacher from a working class background

Theories of stratification

Theories of social class

(a) Karl Marx: The Means of Production

- Karl Marx (1818–1883) concluded that social class depends on a single factor: people's relationship to the **means of production**—the tools, factories, land, and investment capital used to produce wealth (Marx 1844/1964; Marx and Engels 1848/1967).
- There are just two classes of people, said Marx: the **bourgeoisie** (capitalists), those who own the means of production, and the **proletariat** (workers), and those who work for the owners.

Bourgeoisies

- Own the means of production i.e. Land, capital, labour power, buildings and machinery.
- Can control the price at which they sell the goods produced.
- Can also control the wages they pay those who produce the goods they sell.
- Make profits by paying less than they sell to the workers and it is this profit which gives them wealth.
- These reasons give them power to control the rest of society in their interests.

Proletariat

- They do not own the means of production but only their labour.
- They have little control in society.
- They depend completely on the ruling class for wages to live on.

- There are further divisions within these two classes: the *petty bourgeoisie*, small business owners and managers (those whom you might think of as middle class) who identify with the interests of the capitalist class but do not own the means of production, and the *lumpenproletariat*, those who have become unnecessary as workers and are then discarded. (Today, these would be the underclass, the homeless, and the permanently poor.)
- A *lumpenproletariat* (people living on the margin of society, such as beggars, vagrants, and criminals). They did not perceive themselves as exploited workers whose plight could be resolved by collective action. Marx thought of these groups as insignificant in the future he foresaw—a workers' revolution that would overthrow capitalism.
- In short, people's relationship to the means of production determines their social class
- In addition to the class struggle that Marx thought would characterize the advancement of capitalism, he also thought that capitalism was the basis for other social institutions.
- **Capitalism—**an economic system in which the means of production are held largely in private hands and the main incentive for economic activity is the accumulation of profits.

To Marx, capitalism is the *infrastructure* of society, with other institutions (such as law, education, the family, and so forth) reflecting capitalist interests. According to Marx, the law supports the interests of capitalists; the family promotes values that socialize people into appropriate work roles; and education reflects the interests of the capitalist class. Over time,
Marx argued, capitalism would increasingly penetrate society.

- Marx explained that capitalist society *reproduces the class structure* in each new generation. This happens as families gain wealth and pass it down from generation to generation.
- According to Marx, exploitation of the proletariat will inevitably lead to the destruction of the capitalist system, because the workers will revolt. But first, the working class must develop **class consciousness**—a subjective awareness of common vested interests and the need for collective political action to bring about social change.
- Often, workers must overcome what Marx termed **false consciousness,** or an attitude held by members of a class that does not accurately reflect their objective position. A worker with
false consciousness may adopt an individualistic viewpoint toward capitalist exploitation ("*I* am being exploited by *my* boss"). In contrast, the class-conscious worker realizes that all workers are being exploited by the bourgeoisie and have a common stake in revolution.
- For Marx, class consciousness was part of a collective process in which the proletariat comes to identify the bourgeoisie as the source of its oppression.
- Revolutionary leaders will guide the working class in its struggle. Ultimately, the proletariat will overthrow the rule of both the bourgeoisie and the government (which Marx saw as representing the interests of capitalists) and will eliminate private ownership of the means of production.
- Despite Marx's prediction, capitalism is still thriving. Why have industrial workers not overthrown capitalism? reasons:
  - As societies modernised and grew larger, the working classes became more educated, acquiring specific job skills and achieving the kind of financial well-being that Marx never thought possible
  - More worker organizations**.** Workers today have the right to form labor unions, to make demands of management, and to back up their demands with threats of work slowdowns and strikes. As a result, labor disputes are settled without threatening the capitalist system.
  - Greater legal protections. Over the past century, the government passed laws to make workplaces safer. In addition, unemployment insurance, disability protection, and Social Security now provide workers with greater financial security

(b) Max Weber: Property, Power, and Prestige

- **Max Weber** (1864–1920) agreed with Marx on the following:
  - That classes were formed around economic interests and that economic forces have a powerful effect on people's lives. He defined a class as a group of individuals who

share a similar position in a market economy and by virtue of that fact receive similar economic rewards.

- That the major class division is between those who own the forces of production and those who do not. Thus those who have substantial property holdings will receive the highest economic rewards and enjoy superior life chances (Haralambos and Holborn 5th ed)

- However he disagreed with Marx:
  - That economic forces are the primary dimension of stratification. He did not agree to the fact that political power is derived from economic power
  - Weber did not believe that a revolution by the proletariat was likely and inevitable. He suggested that disgruntled individual manual workers may take industrial action, sabotage machinery in an effort to overthrow capitalism
  - Weber distinguished the following class groupings in a capitalist society:
    - The propertied upper class
    - The property less white collar workers
    - The petty bourgeoisie
    - The manual working class
- *Social class*, he said, has three components: property, power, and prestige (Gerth and Mills 1958; Weber 1922/1978). Some call these the three P's of social class. (Although Weber used the terms *class, power,* and *status,* some sociologists find *property, power,* and *prestige* to be clearer terms. To make them even clearer, you may wish to substitute *wealth* for *property*.)
- In short, Weber argued that social class has three components—a combination of property, power, and prestige. For Marx, the only distinction that counted was property, more specifically people's relationship to the means of production.
- Weber used the term **class** to refer to a group of people who have a similar level of wealth and income.
  - ***Property*** (or wealth), said Weber, is certainly significant in determining a person's standing in society. On that point he agreed with Marx. But, added Weber, ownership is not the only significant aspect of property. For example, some powerful people, such as managers of corporations, *control* the means of production even though they do not *own* them. If managers can control property for their own benefit—awarding themselves huge bonuses and magnificent perks—it makes no practical difference that they do not own the property that they use so generously for their own benefit.
  - ***Power (party),*** the second element of social class, is the ability to control others, even over their objections. Weber agreed with Marx that property is a major source of power, but he added that it is not the only source. For example, prestige can be turned into power. Two well-known examples are actors Arnold Schwarzenegger, who became governor of California, and Ronald Reagan, who was elected governor of California and president of the United States.
  - Power is also reflected in the ability of a person or group to negotiate their way through social institutions. An unemployed man wrongly accused of a crime, for instance, does not have much power to negotiate his way through the criminal justice system. By

comparison, business executives accused of corporate crime can afford expensive lawyers and thus frequently go unpunished or, if they are found guilty, serve relatively light sentences in comparatively pleasant facilities.

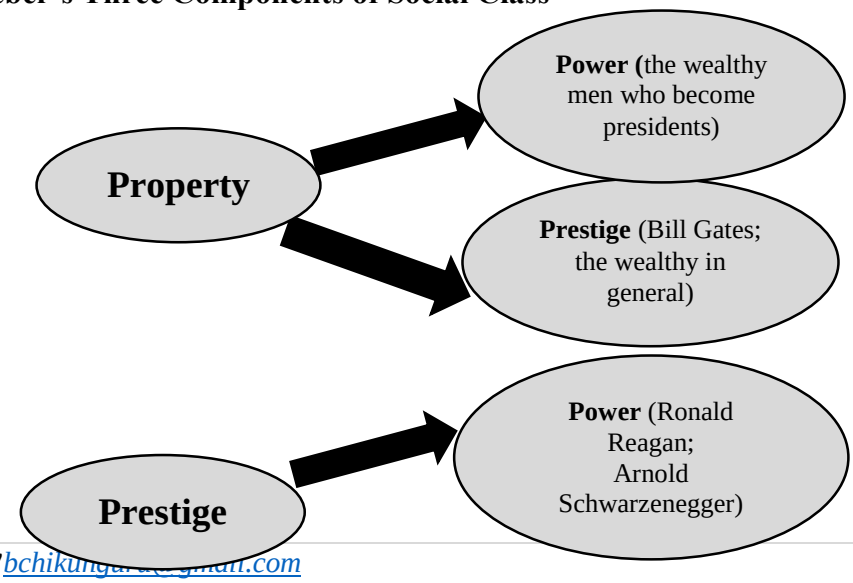
- ***Prestige (Status),*** the third element in Weber's analysis, is often derived from property and power, for people tend to admire the wealthy and powerful. Prestige, however, can be based on other factors. Olympic gold medalists, for example, might not own property or be powerful, yet they have high prestige. Some are even able to exchange their prestige for property. In other words, property and prestige are not one-way streets: Although property can bring prestige, prestige can also bring property.

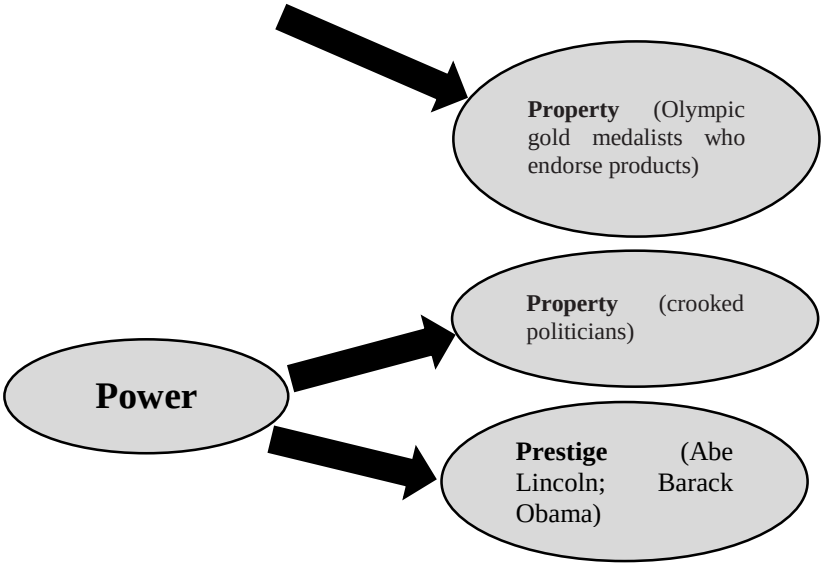
■ When all three are added together they indicate a person's *life chances*. Those who share similar class situation also share similar life chances

➢ Weber concentrated on class power and argued that classes develop from people's market situation.

- According to Weber an individual's market position varies depending on the level of demand for their skills and talents i.e. how an employer is willing to pay for their services. This goes on to include their ownership of property and assets. Thus in weber's terminology, a person's 'class situation' is basically their 'market situation'
- Weber sees some individuals within the property less group as being able to sell their labour at a higher price than others (those with scarce sought after skills such as professionals and managers) for Weber occupational groups could therefore be classes.
- Weberian stratification is not a case of two classes opposed to each other (the Marx type) or a comparative meritocracy (functionalism and the new right) but a complex hierarchy of layers, each with their own class and market position.
- He believed that not all power comes from wealth.
- Class according to Weber was not the only basis of social groupings in society, **status groups** could also be formed ***(groups of people who enjoyed similar levels of status or respect in society)***, these status groups might for example be based on ethnicity, age, nationality or gender. Status groups may also cut across classes as in the case of the gay community. **parties** such as political parties could also be formed to exercise political power or influence for example ZANU (PF) and MDC in Zimbabwe.

Weber's Three Components of Social Class


Property
Power (the wealthy men who become presidents)
Prestige (Bill Gates; the wealthy in general)
Prestige
Power (Ronald Reagan; Arnold Schwarzenegger)


Property (Olympic gold medalists who endorse products)
Property (crooked politicians)
Power
Prestige (Abe Lincoln; Barack Obama)

1. **Functionalist explanations of social stratification**

- Functionalists take the position that the patterns of behavior that characterize a society exist because they are functional for that society. Because social inequality is universal, inequality must help societies survive.
- Functionalism strongly believe that the class system allows individuals to find their right place and role in society. Functionalist say that society is a meritocracy where the ablest people raise to the top

(a) Davis and Moore's Explanation (The Davis-Moore Thesis).

- The Davis-Moore thesis states that social stratification has beneficial consequences for the operation of society.
- Two functionalists, Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore (1945, 1953) concluded that stratification of society is inevitable because:
  - Society must make certain that its positions are filled
  - Some positions are more important than others .e.g. the position of college president is more important than that of student because the president's decisions affect a large number of people, including many students. College presidents are also accountable for their performance to boards of trustees.
  - The more important positions must be filled by the more qualified people. Therefore, Davis and Moore explain, the greater the functional importance of a position, the more rewards a society attaches to it.
  - To motivate the more qualified people to fill these positions, society must offer them greater rewards .e.g. if a job requires rigorous training, it, too, must offer more salary and benefits.
- Why do people accept such high-pressure positions? Why don't they just take less demanding jobs? The answer, said Davis and Moore, is that society offers greater rewards—prestige, pay, and benefits—for its more demanding and accountable positions.
- Davis and Moore further argues:

- ❖ No society is unstratified. So inequality is universal
- ❖ This universal nature mean that inequality is necessary to the smooth working of society

Functions of Social Stratification

- ➢ Unequal rewards (which is what social stratification is) benefit society as a whole. This promotes productivity and efficiency because rewarding important work with income, prestige, power, and leisure encourages people to do these jobs and to work better, longer, and harder.
- ➢ It offers incentives for people to try their best
- ➢ It draws talented people away from less important work.
- ➢ It offers opportunity for less pleasant jobs to be taken e.g. cleaning public toilets
- ➢ It ranks social positions to their varying degrees of functional importance

(b) New right market liberal perspective (neo functionalism) this perspective is a new form of functionalism which believes that:

- inequality is motivating and promotes economic growth,
- Market force encourage competition which ensure that goods and services are high quality and low in price making them available to a wider section of the population.

(c) Talcott Parsons

According to Parsons: -

- Stratification as inevitable and useful in all societies because it derives from shared values which are necessary in a social system. Stratification enables shared values
- Stratification systems evaluate individual in terms of common social values with high status being a reward for conforming to society's values.
- Stratification reinforces the collective goals of society and establishes order.

- ➢ However, these above arguments are criticized by:

(d) Melvin Tumin (1953) criticised Davis and Moore by saying:

- ➢ Many low-paid and even unskilled jobs are just as important as higher paid or more skilled jobs. A heart surgeon, for example, saves lives and earns much more than a garbage collector, but this doesn't mean that garbage collectors are less important to society. By helping to prevent contagious diseases, garbage collectors save more lives than heart surgeons do.
- ➢ People's positions in society are based on many factors other than merit. The best predictor of who goes to college, for example, is not ability but income: The more a family earns, the more likely their children are to go to college (Carnevale and Rose 2003; Belley and Lochner 2007). Not merit, then, but money— another form of the inequality that is built into society.
- ➢ If social stratification is so functional, it ought to benefit almost everyone. Yet social stratification is *dysfunctional* for many. Think of the people who could have made valuable contributions to society had they not been born in slums, dropped out of school, and taken menial jobs to help support their families.

(e) Gordon Marshall and Adam swift (1993) also argue that: -

- Capitalist societies are not meritocratic as the New Right claim.
- Free market does not guarantee a fair chance for all; opportunities vary according which class you are born into for example inherited wealth makes it easier to start a business. Luck can play part in success, too. (a lotto win)
- Class plays a part even if people are of equal ability. Evidence shows that people from lower social class backgrounds are less likely than those from upper class to get top jobs even when they have the same qualifications.

2. The Conflict Perspective

- Conflict, not function, they stress, is the reason that we have social stratification
- From a conflict point of view, the more stratified a society, the less likely that society will benefit from the talents of its citizens. Inequality limits the life chances of those at the bottom, preventing their talents from being discovered and used.
- According to the conflict perspective, inequality provides elites with the power to distribute resources, make and enforce laws, and control value systems. Elites then use these powers to reproduce their own advantage through:
  - *Controlling People's Ideas*- Controlling people's ideas can be remarkably more effective than using brute force. Although this particular ideology governs few minds today, the elite in *every* society develops ideologies to justify its position at the top.)
  - *Controlling Information*- To maintain their positions of power, elites try to control information and stifle criticism. For those who can get away with it, fear is a favorite tactic. In Thailand, you can be put in prison for criticizing the king or his family (Grant 2009). It was worse in Saddam Hussein's Iraq, where the penalty for telling a joke about Hussein was having your tongue cut out (Nordland 2003). (*refer to Althusser's ISA and RSA)*

(a) Mosca's Argument- Italian sociologist Gaetano Mosca argued that every society will be stratified by power. This is inevitable, he said in an 1896 book titled *The Ruling Class,* because:

- No society can exist unless it is organized. This requires leadership of some sort in order to coordinate people's actions.
- Leadership (or political organization) requires inequalities of power. By definition, some people take leadership positions, while others follow.
- Because human nature is self-centered, people in power will use their positions to seize greater rewards for themselves.

(b) Karl Marx's argument- the people in power are not there because of superior traits, as the functionalists would have us believe. This view is an ideology that members of the elite use to justify their being at the top—and to seduce the oppressed into believing that their welfare depends on keeping quiet and following authorities.

- The term **dominant ideology** describes a set of cultural beliefs and practices that helps to maintain powerful social, economic, and political interests. For Marx, the dominant ideology in a capitalist society served the interests of the ruling class. From a conflict perspective, the social significance of the dominant ideology is that not only do a society's most powerful groups and institutions control wealth and property; even more important, they control the means of producing beliefs about reality through religion,

education, and the media (Abercrombie et al. 1980, 1990; Robertson 1988) (*refer to previous notes on Marx's views of the society for more*)

(c) Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002) - supported the view that lifestyle choices are an important indicator of class (Giddens 2009).

- ❖ He identifies four forms of 'capital' that characterize class position, of which *economic capital* is only one: the others are *cultural, social* and *symbolic* (Bourdieu 1986) (*refer to previous notes on Bourdieu for definitions of the other three*)
- ❖ He argued that *economic capital* which consists of material goods such as property, wealth and income - was important, but he argued that it only provided a partial understanding of class.
- ❖ Each type of capital in Bourdieu's account is related and, to an extent, being in possession of one can help in the pursuit of the others.
- ❖ For example, a businessman who makes a large amount of money (economic capital) might not have particularly fine tastes in the arts, but can pay for his children to attend private schools where these pursuits are encouraged (and so his children gain cultural capital).
- ❖ The businessman's money might lead him to make new contacts with senior people in the business world, and his children will meet the children of other wealthy families, so he, and they, will gain social capital.
- ❖ Similarly someone with a large group of well-connected friends (social capital) might be quickly promoted to a senior position in her company, where she does well, and gains in economic and symbolic capital.

3. Interactionist Perspective

- ➢ In most communities, people interact primarily with others who share the same social standing. It is precisely because of social stratification that people tend to live, work, and associate with others like themselves, people who share their same income level, educational background, or racial background, and even tastes in food, music, and clothing.
- ➢ Symbolic interactionists also note that people's appearance reflects their perceived social standing. Housing, clothing, and transportation indicate social status, as do hairstyles, taste in accessories, and personal style.
- ➢ To symbolically communicate social standing, people often engage in **conspicuous consumption**, which is the purchase and use of certain products to make a social statement about status. Carrying pricey but eco-friendly water bottles could indicate a person's social standing. Some people buy expensive trendy sneakers even though they will never wear them to jog or play sports, they may purchase more automobiles than they can reasonably use, or build homes with more rooms than they can possibly occupy.
- ➢ In an element of conspicuous consumption called *conspicuous leisure*, they may jet to a remote destination, staying just long enough to have dinner or view a sunset over some historic locale (Veblen [1899] 1964). In Zimbabwe one may decide to drive from Chinhoyi to Harare just to have dinner in more luxurious hotels not found in Chinhoyi

4. Post-modernist explanation on stratification

The postmodern theory argues that Class is not as important as it used to be.

- It claims that other differences such as gender, age and ethnicity are also important.
- According to Pakulski and Waters (1996), individuals are classified into particular strata or groups in current society by cultural differences (values, lifestyles and beliefs) not economic positions.
- Therefore, individual can define themselves as belonging to social groups or strata and can freely move from one to another by choosing their lifestyle and identity.
- Pakulski and Waters point out that other forms of inequality and identity are more relevant than class whereas the rest of sociology still focus on class.

To post modernists class does not exist in this postmodern world, identities are self-built anyway.

TOPIC 10: AGE

- **Age** refers to one of stages of life. e.g. childhood , youth.
- It may also generally refer to a generation .**Generation** can be thought of as group of people who are born in either the same year or series of years (Giddens 2009).
- There exists a universal and uniform set of stages through which all people pass. For example, everyone who lives to old age has been an infant, a child, a youth and an adult, and everyone dies eventually.
- These apparently natural biological stages are part of the human *life-course*, which is social as well as biological (Vincent 2003)
- The concept of the life-course rather than *life-cycle* reflects the acknowledgement by sociologists that there is considerable variation in different societies and over time and therefore variation also across the life-course. **Life cycle**, and **life course** are terms used to denote the process of personal change from birth through infancy, childhood and adulthood to old age and death, that results from the interaction between biological and biographical events on the one hand and social events on the other.
- Stages of the life-course are influenced by cultural differences and also by the material circumstances of people's lives in given types of society. For example, in modern Western societies, death is usually thought of in relation to elderly people, because most people live to be over 70. In the traditional societies of the past, however, more people died at a younger age than survived to old age, and death therefore carried a different meaning and set of expectations.
- Other social factors, such as social class, gender and ethnicity, also influence the way that the life-course is experienced.

- The individual life-course is not only structured by the major social divisions of social class, gender and ethnicity, but is also historically situated.
- One way of thinking about this aspect is to consider the concepts of birth cohorts and generations. **Cohorts** are simply groups of people with something in common and **birth cohorts** are therefore groups of people who are born in the same year.
- Why should this be important? Sociologists argue that such groups tend to be influenced by the same major events and, though they may well respond differently to these, they nonetheless share a common experience.
- In large measure, their life-course experiences have common cultural and political reference points, such as specific governments, conflicts, musical trends and so on .e.g. the 1992, 2008 drought, the 1992 locust plague, Gukurahundi periods in Zimbabwe.
- The Hungarian-born sociologist Karl Mannheim (1893-1947), made a strong claim regarding the influence of particular generations on life-course experience.
- Mannheim (1972[1928]:105) said: 'Individuals who belong to the same generation ... are endowed ...with a common location in the historical dimension of the social process.'
- Mannheim's claim is that generational location can be as influential in shaping people's attitudes and beliefs as their social-class position.
- Generations tend to experience the world, and their place in it, rather differently. Hence we can speak of a 'generation gap', a 'lost generation [of youth] , or 'generation X' to describe the historical location of different generations. The assumption behind all such descriptions is that the generation of people in question is very different from that which came before. For example the historians can identify ‘the born-free’ generation in Zimbabwe as those born after the country attained independence in 1980

Childhood

- Children are distinct from babies or toddlers; **childhood** intervenes between infancy and the teen years (Giddens 2009). It is therefore the period between infancy and teenage
- In Zimbabwe if one is under 18 years he/she is considered a child (BettyMakoni@bulawayo24.com)
- According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, childhood consists of two stages: preoperational stage and concrete operational stage.
- In developmental psychology, childhood is divided up into the developmental stages of toddlerhood (learning to walk), early childhood (play age), middle childhood (school age), and adolescence (puberty through post-puberty).
- The term childhood is non-specific in its time span and can imply a varying range of years in human development. It may refer to the period between infancy and adulthood, or the time span from birth to puberty. It also varies with culture
- Developmental stages of childhood in developmental psychology include:
  - *Early childhood*. Early childhood begins at around 3 years and continues approximately until the age of 7. The children also start preschool and kindergarten at this age, a period commonly referred to as Early Childhood Development (ECD) in education circles

- *Middle childhood*. Begins at around age 7, approximating primary school age. It ends with puberty (around age 12 or 13), which typically marks the beginning of adolescence. In this period, children develop socially and mentally
- *Adolescence*. This denotes the emotional and behavioral states supposedly associated with becoming an adult, the period in the life-cycle between childhood and adulthood and, more specifically, the period when the physical changes associated with biological puberty occur but the person's sexual maturity is not yet socially recognized. Adolescence is biologically distinct from childhood, but it is accepted by some cultures as a part of social childhood, because most of them are minors.

- Children should be conceptualized as a distinct social group, in the same way as, for example, social classes and ethnic groups are.
- As a distinct social group, children tend to experience life through their own culture, with its unique symbols and rituals, and they also have a similar status to some other minority groups, which has often led to them being exploited as a cheap source of labor (James et al. 1998).
- Childhood has also been shown to be socially constructed; the experience of childhood and its meaning for society are diverse, both in different historical periods and across geographical regions in the same time period (jenks 2005).
- It seems possible that as a result of changes currently occurring in modern societies, the separate character of childhood is diminishing once more, bringing adult-child relations towards crisis point (Prout 2004).
- The uncertainties associated with globalization processes and the kind of rapid social changes are leading to new social constructions of childhood.
- Prout (2004: 7) suggests: 'These new representations construct children as more active, knowledgeable and socially participative than older discourses allowed.
- They are more difficult to manage, less biddable and hence are more troublesome and troubling: It seems that relationships between adults and children are in a period of flux and major disturbance.
- They point out that even small children may watch the same television programmes as adults, thereby becoming much more familiar early on with the adult world than did preceding generations.

How the period of childhood has been shortened

- **Early exposure to adult material**. Postman (1982) sees childhood as under threat because television exposes them too soon to the adult world. New Right thinkers believe that childhood is under threat because the period of innocent childhood has been shortened and because children have been exposed too soon to the adult world. Children are becoming consumers at an earlier age and are consuming adult products such as TV programmes, mobile phones and advertising.
- **Reduced parental monitoring**. Palmer claims that parents are too happy to use television, electronic games and junk food to keep children quiet and that parents are either too busy or too distracted by consumerism to give children a traditional childhood and family life.

- **Fast physical growth**- Other observers have suggested that children now grow up so fast that the previously solid boundary between adults and children is rapidly diminishing, leading to the 'disappearance' of childhood in the developed societies (Postman 1995; Buckingham 2000).
- **Children have been given too many rights in recent years.** New Right thinkers believe that children have been given too many rights in recent years and that it is wrong that parents are increasingly criticized and even punished for using sanctions such as smacking children .e.g. In Zimbabwe corporal punishment has been illegalized. Increasingly, children have come to be seen by the State as individuals with rights.

Characteristics of childhood

- **High dependency**. Children have a need for the support of someone in order to continue to thrive e.g. they require clothes and food from someone. Children are dependent on adults for a range of biological and emotional needs. They need a lengthy process of socialization which takes several years.
- **Increased vulnerability**. Children are characterized by being more easily physically, emotionally or mentally hurt, influenced or attacked e.g. most children easily fall prey to kidnappers.
- **Low resilience**. Childhood is characterized by low adaptation to adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress .e.g. children are easily threatened or suffer a lot of stress after the death of a parent
- **Period of development of interests** e.g. interest in play, self, clothes, religion. In early childhood male children become attached to the mother and the female child to the father (*refer to Freud's theory)*
- **Period of rapid physical, mental, emotional, social and language development.**
  - On language development, in early and middle childhood, children will be mastering pronunciation, building up vocabulary , combine words into sentences
  - On emotional development, in early childhood this is a time of disequilibrium in controlling emotions. Most common emotions are anger, fear, jealousy, curiosity, envy, joy, grief, affection. In early childhood, anger is most commonly caused by conflicts over playthings, unfulfillment of wishes etc. children express anger by crying, screaming, kicking, jumping up and down or striking
  - On social development (*refer to the play and game stage of Herbert Mead*)
- **It is socially constructed**. Sociologists say that childhood is socially constructed. This means that childhood is something created and defined by society. These are not biologically constructed.

The Social Construction of Childhood

- Cunningham (2006) argues that the nineteenth century saw the social construction of childhood by adults.
  - What people mean by childhood and the position children occupy is not fixed but differs across times, places and cultures. Examples of the social construction of childhood in modern society include:

- There are child specific places where only children and 'trusted adults' are supposed to go, and thus children are relatively sheltered from adult life.
- There are several laws preventing children from doing certain things which adults are allowed to do.
- There are products specifically for children –which adults are not supposed to play with (although some of them do).
- Child-centered society. The State became more involved in the supervision, socialization and protection of children. The State supervises the socialization of children through compulsory education. The role of social services and social workers is to police those families in which children are thought to be at risk.

❖ All of the above separations between adults and children have nothing to do with the biological differences between adults and children – children do not need to have 'special places' just for them, they do not need special laws protecting them, and neither do they need specific toys designed for them. We as a society have decided that these things are desirable for children, and thus we 'construct childhood' as a being very different to adulthood.

❖ The social construction of childhood argument also points out that childhood is not a fixed, universal experience. Rather, it is a relative experience dependent upon a number of social factors.

- The anthropologists Ruth Benedict (1934) argues that children in traditional, non-industrial societies are generally treated differently from children in modern western societies. In other cultures children are seen as an 'economic asset' and expected to engage in paid work – In Less developed countries children are seen as a source of cheap (free) labor on the farm, in the home or in sweat shops where the wage can help boost the family income.
- Sexual behavior – In some cultures girls are sometimes married off at 14 or younger, taking on the duties of a wife or mother at a young age
- Experience of childhood may differ across ethnic and religious groups, e.g. there is evidence that children in Muslim, Hindu and Sikh families generally feel a stronger sense of obligation and duty to their parents than White western children.
- Experiences of childhood in Zimbabwe may vary according to social class. Upper class children may find that they spend most of their formative years in boarding schools, whilst working-class childhood may be made more difficult by the experience of poverty
- Experiences of childhood may differ according to gender role socialization, e.g. there is some evidence that girls are subjected to stricter social controls from parents, compared with boys, when they reach adolescence.

❖ However, the historian Philippe Aries has an extreme view on childhood as a social construction. He argues that in the Middle Ages (the 10th to the 13th century) 'the idea of childhood did not exist' – children were not seen as essentially different to adults like they are today.

❖ Aries uses the following evidence to support his view:

- Children were expected to work at a much earlier age

- The law often made no distinction between children and adults
- Works of art from the period often just depict children as small adults – they wear the same clothes and appear to work and play together.

❖ Aries argues that it is only from the 13th century onwards that modern notions of childhood – the idea that childhood is a distinct phase of life from adulthood – begin to emerge. Essentially Aries is arguing that childhood as we understand it today is a relatively recent 'invention'

❖ (*also refer to the New Right thinkers on childhood from previous notes*)

Childhood problems

Vulnerability to diseases especially in early childhood e.g. epidemics like measles

➢ Malnutrition. Most children are vulnerable to malnutrition compared to adults

➢ Child labor. Due to their resilience children can be forced to take jobs in farming sector or mining. In Zimbabwe, it has been alleged that USA refused to trade in diamonds from Marange citing child labor issues

➢ Child trafficking. Children are easy to be abducted. Cases of child trafficking are also common in Zimbabwe where some children are abducted and sent even across the boarder

➢ Child marriage. Some girl children fall prey to early marriage especially in some garment churches (*refer to The Newsday [May 31 2014]- Madzibaba Ishmael story in Budiriro*). This also leads to sexual abuse

➢ Social adjustment problems. Children who still behave in an unsocial way after other children of the same age have developed more socially acceptable patterns will find that they have no one to play with. Normally other people also dislike children with unsocial behavior. As a result these children will develop adjustment problem in the social environment

Policies on children's welfare in Zimbabwe

➢ ***Children's Act (chapter 5:06).***states that children have a legal right to food, shelter, clothing, medical care and supervision. If a child is not taken care of by parents, the government's department of social welfare services can arrange for a child to be taken away from those parents and be given to someone who can look after him/her

❖ However Blessing Bhaiseni (2016) notes that the definition of a child as given in the Children's Act is not in line with other legal instruments such as the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACWRC) and the Constitution of Zimbabwe. The Children's Act defines a child as a person under the age of sixteen years while the ACRWC defines a child as every human being below the age of eighteen years. Both the Constitution of Zimbabwe (section 81) and the Zimbabwe National Orphan Care policy define a child as any person below the age of 18 years. There is thus a discord in the definition of a child which may pose some challenges when it comes to the implementation of child welfare issues.

❖ Despite the discord, one finds that the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) gives leeway for member states to come up with an age limit which is lower than

eighteen. Therefore, definition of a child in the Children's Act could have been developed on this premise.

- ❖ Also the Children's Act does not provide for the establishment of Child Protection Committees (CPCs) despite the fact that article 19 of the UNCRC states that states parties should establish social programmes and structures for the identification, reporting, referral, investigation, treatment and follow-up of instances of child maltreatment.
- ❖ The Children's Act does not cover the issue of children's education as stated in both the UNCRC and ACRWC. The issue of children's education is only found in the Education Act; the Children's Act should have provided for children's rights to education since it is one of the most important children's rights.

- ➢ ***Maintenance Act*** -If one or both parents has the money or resources to pay for the child's basic needs (ie school, food, shelter,) and they are not doing so, they are liable to maintaining the child
- ➢ ***The education Act*** .parents are required by this law to make sure that their children attain basic primary education .Article 28 of the UNCRC states that primary education should be compulsory and free and in Zimbabwe soon after independence primary education was provided free of charge.
- ❖ However, Bhaiseni (2016) notes that the policy was changed due to economic hardships; 'free' primary education is only provided in rural areas. Kaseke (1993:12) notes the introduction of school fees in primary education resulted in some children failing to access education. In rural school's primary education is said to be free but there some levies charged which are beyond the reach of some of the children and as a consequence, some children drop out of school. It is very difficult to enforce free primary education because it is not provided for in the Children's Act.

- ➢ ***Deceased person's family maintenance Act***. No one has the right to remove a child/family from the house left to them by their parents
- ➢ ***The guardianship of the minors Act***. if one of the child's parents is still alive no one else can take away the child from the parents , unless the court decides that it is in the child's best interest
- ➢ ***National orphan care policy***. Provides for the care and protection of orphans to ensure they are accorded all their rights.

Youth Culture in Zimbabwe

- ➢ Linked to the idea of the teenager is that of **youth culture**, a general way of life associated with young people (Giddens 2009)
- ➢ The term *youth culture* is the emergence of 'youth micro-societies', with significant degrees of independence from the 'adult institutions', that provide specific space and time (Feixa and Nofre@sociopedia.isa)
- ➢ Youth culture in Zimbabwe, at any given time, is not unitary; it consists of various subcultures based on the geographical and ethnic background (Takupiwa et al 2011)
- ➢ Youth cultures are a small but highly visible subcultures.

- In Zimbabwe, **youth** are defined as persons between 15 and 35 years of age. This age range is stipulated in the Constitution of Zimbabwe and is also in line with the continental definition of youth as defined in the African Youth Charter (15 to 35).
- Characteristics/ features of youth culture in Zimbabwe include:

- **Challenging of mainstream norms and values**. Some youth cultures are counter-cultural and deviant. Western education also made some youths, especially urban ones, disrespectful and arrogant. To them, freedom and coming of age meant not greeting elders and not listening to their advice (Chinouya & O'Keefe, 2006). There are also some, especially those who have been to South Africa and normally drive cars with the check letters reflecting Gauteng Province (GP), who are violent and, at times, commit murder. Most of these carry unlicensed guns (Chronicle Newspaper, 2007). However, other youths have become highly religious. They participate in crusades for their newfound denominations that are largely influenced by the American Pentecostal movement. In these denominations, they participated in choral groups and independent gospel musical bands to find a purpose for living (Takupiwa et al 2011)..
- **Association with the concept of *hunhu***. In Zimbabwean culture, the concept of *hunhu* has been closely associated with the culture of obedience for the youths; that is, respect and being obedient to adults (Takupiwa et al 2011). Unfortunately, emphasis on youth obedience has been manipulated to exploit youths who are, in most cases, vulnerable due to their weak economic status.
- **Language manipulation**. Other youths show their coming of age by rejecting or off-loading their indigenous names. They adopt western and Christian ones. Some *Shona* names were Anglicized, for example, *Hazvinei* can be changed to Nomatter. Others gave themselves names of their music idols, for example, Elvis from Elvis Presley. Yet others gave themselves names of cities, such as Wellington, the capital of New Zealand (Samkange & Samkange, 1980). If one is to profess his love to a potential lover in Shona/Ndebele, especially using proverbs, he becomes a subject of public ridicule. He is seen as someone who is unschooled. Slang is also prevalent in Zimbabwean youth culture e.g. Moms meaning mother, Gogaz for grandmother
- **Development of new music genres**. Many youths in Zimbabwe, both urban and rural, were heavily influenced by reggae, which perpetuated the use of marijuana, spotting of dreadlocks, use of Rastafarian language, and change of dress by many young men and women. Lately, there has also been a heavy influence from popular Black American musicians on Zimbabwean youths leading to the development of a new genres called urban grooves and ZimDancehall. According to Takupiwa et al (2011), there has also been the regeneration of traditional *mbira* music by the youths. The fusion of *kwasa kwasa* and *sungura* dances has led to the proliferation of dancing groups, such as Mambokadzi and Amavhitikazi, that have become a source of entertainment and employment for most youths.
- **Entertainment through Multimedia**. Multimedia is a broad factor that includes television, radio, Internet, and newspapers. It has the power to alter habits, feelings, and minds of young people (Kunjuku, 1990). The impact of the internet is being felt among the contemporary youths by such social networks as Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram and Twitter. These networks have the potential of bringing the youth together so that they work together for

development or destruction of the status quo. The effects of long periods of internet use include postural development problems, obesity, undeveloped social skills, visual problems, addictive behavior, and makes children with seizure disorders more susceptible to attacks (Pediatrics & Child Health, 2003). The youths also indulged in viewing pornography when they are alone at home. Although viewing pornography is illegal in Zimbabwe, it is very difficult to control access to such damaging material. As such the youths find themselves engrossed in pornography with very little restraint (Takupiwa et al 2011).

- **Labor Migration**. Today, young men are leaving en masse to South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, United Kingdom, Australia, and many other countries in search of better fortunes. Their migration to different countries on the global village makes the Zimbabwean youth subculture a melting pot. They are exposed to a diverse spectrum of lifestyles (Isimbabi, 2004) and, consequently, a multi-cultured youth is emerging in Zimbabwe. The composite culture presents challenges to the home and school, the primary institutions of learning, and socialization. Fashions are changing by day. Many youths who went abroad now own immovable properties, like houses, and drive posh cars (Parthasarathi, 2004). Some of them are showy and difficult to reintegrate back into society.

Problems faced by the youth in Zimbabwe

- teenage pregnancy
- unsafe abortions
- child marriage
- sexually transmitted diseases including HIV
- Lack of access to sexual and reproductive health information services.
- Unemployment. Zimbabwe has also been classified as one of the countries where it is very difficult for young people to get jobs. It is estimated that 20 percent of youths in the 18 to 24 age group are never able to secure employment.
- Unaffordable education
- lack of access to health care due to excessive poverty
- forced mobility (migration) due to limited opportunities- Independent researchers have revealed that the general unemployment rate stands at more than 80% with many youth graduates resorting to vending and cross border trade activities to support livelihoods outside of the mainstream economy (zimbabwe human rights commission [ZHRC]).
- sexual abuse of young women
- limited civic space for effective participation in economic and political spaces i.e. in parliament and political parties
- Exploitation by politicians for political violence especially during election time (zimbabwe human rights commission [ZHRC]).
- Economic marginalization. Youths in rural areas do not have available opportunities and are side-lined, for example, in support of farming because they lack collateral security.
- Poverty. A Survey by the International Labour Organization (ILO) has revealed that youths in Zimbabwe are among the world's poorest, as they are living in an extremely difficult environment. Titled "World Employment and Social Outlook 2016: Trends for Youth," the

survey places Zimbabwe in the 75 to 100 category, which relates to working youths experiencing extreme poverty. These are youths earning less than US$2 per capita per day.

Government policies on youth empowerment

- **Youth empowerment** is the creation of an enabling environment for the youth to have the freedom to choose, to participate in and take decisions in matters affecting them and be ready to accept the consequences of their decisions.
- Empowerment enables the youth to be active participants in both the process and product of development. It has a democratizing impact.

(a) Zimbabwe Youth Policy (2013) has clear clusters and strategies on youth empowerment and participation, which cover economic, cultural, social, political, environmental and technological issues.

- Strategies for Youth Empowerment and Participation:
  - Facilitate establishment and funding of youth groups and youth Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), led and headed by the youth themselves and ensure their participation in decision-making processes at all levels
  - Ensure that Government approves a 25% quota of all economic indigenization and empowerment facilities in agriculture, mining, commercial, tourism, and industrial economic activity is reserved and available for youth, paying particular attention to the empowerment of young women and young people with disabilities
  - Facilitate the participation of youth in parliament and other decision making bodies in accordance with prescribed laws
  - Include youth representatives as part of delegations to national, regional and international youth development meetings and sessions
- Strategies for Youth Employment and Sustainable Livelihoods:
  - Encourage equal employment opportunities for the youth that have attained the age of majority, with particular attention to reducing gender inequities and inequalities
  - Establish a Youth Fund and other institutional funds as well as remove barriers to ensure access to capital by youth
  - Promote career guidance and counseling in both public and private sectors, to assist young people more efficiently in finding employment
  - Promote youth entrepreneurship by including entrepreneurship training in the school curricula, providing access to credit, business, development skills training, mentorship opportunities and better information on market opportunities
  - Regulate the informal economy to prevent unfair labor practices and exploitation of youth
- Strategies for Youth Health:
  - Expand and create access to health services by young people
  - Integrate and expand HIV and AIDS programming in all youth activities
  - Allocate adequate financial, human and other resources to youth health
  - Translate important health information into vernacular languages and Braille.
  - Harmonize health, education and other youth policies on health matters
- Strategies for Gender Equity and Equality:

- ❖ Make gender mainstreaming a requirement for all youth programmes and projects
- ❖ Provide support for NGOs, particularly youth NGOs, in their efforts to promote the equality and participation of young people in society
- ❖ Advocate for gender equality and equity from childhood
- ❖ Provide appropriate programmes aimed at improving the opportunities for girls in order to achieve gender equity in education; provide for young women to continue with their education after they fall pregnant
- ❖ Institute empowerment mechanisms and affirmative action to promote girls and young women's access to science and math education, skills and entrepreneurship skills development, economic and political opportunities

➢ Strategies for National Youth Service:

- ❖ Impart productive work culture through on the job experiences and meaningful exposure to the world of work
- ❖ Facilitate direct participation and involvement of youth in national issues at all levels of governance
- ❖ Promote volunteerism among the youth and establish a National Youth Volunteer Corps
- ❖ Promote youth participation in voluntary community development and public works programmes

➢ Strategies Culture, Art, Sport and Recreation:

- ❖ Inculcate among the youth cultural values of "ubuntu/unhu hwedu"
- ❖ Promote cultural values which are helpful for development and discourage those that hinder progress
- ❖ Incorporate into the school curriculum, traditional dances, games, playing of musical instruments both traditional and foreign
- ❖ Encourage the teaching of arts and crafts among all categories of the youth

➢ Strategies for Information and Communication Technology:

- ❖ Develop and capacitate the use of information and communication technology among the youth
- ❖ Promote ICT education and skills development among youths
- ❖ Modify education and social systems to meet the new challenges of the ICT age

➢ Strategies for Youth and Protection of the Environment

- ❖ Strengthen participation of youth in the protection, preservation and improvement of the environment
- ❖ Promote youth participation in tree planting, forestry, combating of desert creep, waste reduction, recycling and other sound environmental practices
- ❖ Involve young people in designing and implementing appropriate environmental policies and programmes

➢ The National youth policy also identifies the following youth subgroups with particular and special interests for differentiated national responses and strategically targeted interventions:

- ❖ *Young women*-The youth policy recognizes measures to correct gender imbalances and further provides for specific interventions targeting these girls and young women.

- *Youth with disabilities*-The youth policy approaches disability as a human rights and development issue and creates an enabling environment for youth with disabilities to realize their full development potential and contribute towards betterment of society, by mainstreaming disability issues at all levels and prioritizing issues affecting young people with disabilities.
- *Pupils and students*-The youth policy provides specific measures for their full and integrated development.
- *Unemployed Youth*-The policy provides mechanisms for public, private and non-state sectors to create an enabling environment for integrated development for young people.
- *Out-of-school youths*-The youth policy provides opportunities for out-of-school youth and mechanisms for their reintegration into society.
- *Youth living with HIV*-The youth policy provides a framework for integration of HIV and AIDS, health, education, human rights, environment and other issues for the full and holistic development of young people.
- *Youth in the Diaspora*-The youth policy provides measures to protect the rights of all young people living in the Diaspora and encourages them to participate in national, political, cultural, social and development programmes, and provides measures for their return and full reintegration into society.

  - However, these policies are on paper and there is no holistic approach to implementing them. the policy is also limited by the Zimbabwe Youth Council Act which is in violation of the Constitution and requires serious review (Human Rights Commision)

- According to the Human Rights Commission, as the constitution is clear on liberties and youth participation, there is need to remove or repeal laws that limit youth rights such as the Zimbabwe Youth Council Act above, Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA), Chapter 10:27 and Public Order and Security Act (POSA), Chapter 11:17. Youth Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) are subject to further restrictions through the Zimbabwe Youth Council (ZYC) Act and Statutory Instrument 14/2013 (Zimbabwe Youth Council (General) Regulations, 2013).
- Under the statutory instrument, youth organizations are prohibited from receiving any foreign funding.
- Young people are also restricted in attaining their rights to political participation by the current age limit of 40 years for one to be President as sighted by the Abidjan Youth Summit Declaration (2017) ahead of the Heads of State and Government Meeting in Ivory Coast – the age limit needs to be lowered mostly in African countries, including Zimbabwe to give young people equal opportunities in leadership
- In terms of the right to education, the Constitution provides that every child has a right to education from primary to tertiary education, but the high cost of education is limiting this right to education. In reality, education has been commercialized.
- Young People with Disabilities face intersectional discrimination that is as youths and as youths with disabilities. Lack of facilities in public places limit their right to participation. Lack of financial support, representation in decision making, and availability of basic necessities such Braille and Sun Cream for young people living

with Albinism are all indicators of the intersectional discrimination that youths with disabilities face.

(b) Other policies for the youth include the ***Maintenance Act***(for those under 18 years), ***Deceased person's family maintenance Act e.t.c***

Old Age

- **Ageing** can be sociologically defined as the combination of biological, psychological and social processes that affect people as they grow older (Abeles and Riley 1987; Atchley 2000). It is usually a sign of longer life expectancy. **Life expectancy** is the average number of years a person born alive is expected to live.
- Each person experiences age-related changes based on many factors. Biological factors such as molecular and cellular changes are called **primary aging**, while aging that occurs due to controllable factors such as lack of physical exercise and poor diet is called **secondary aging** (Whitbourne and Whitbourne 2010)
- The definition of the elderly, also referred to as older persons is contested terrain; however the definition can be adopted from the United Nations position agreed upon at the World Assembly on Ageing at Vienna in 1982, which says the **elderly(old aged),** incorporates all persons aged 60 years and over.
- Biological ageing characteristics include:
  - declining vision
  - hearing loss
  - wrinkles, as the skin's underlying structure becomes more and more brittle
  - grey hair
  - Use of walking sticks.
- Studying the graying of a society's population is the focus of **gerontology** (derived from the Greek word geron, meaning "old person"), the study of aging and the elderly.
- Gerontologists investigate age, aging, and the aged.

Benefits of old age in Zimbabwe

- **Right to social security**. The National Social Security Authority in Zimbabwe operates a contributory and compulsory Pensions and Other Benefits Scheme, which provides for retirement pension in old age among other services.
- **Institutional care**. Kaseke, Dhemba, Gumbo and Kasere (1998:60) point out that "there are about 71 old people's homes in Zimbabwe"
- **Free health**. They are given free hospital treatment at state hospitals like Parirenyatwa
- **Economic help**. Some are given agricultural inputs like maize seed for free buy the state
- **Guidance to the younger generation**. They are consulted for advice by young people hence a symbol of unparalleled wisdom. Some of the roles associated with ageing are generally positive: lord and lady, senior adviser, doting grandparent, religious elder, wise spiritual teacher.
- However:

- ❖ Dhemba (2012) observes that most of the elderly are unlikely to be covered under the social security scheme given the high levels of unemployment in the country.
- ❖ Kaseke, et al (1998) maintain that the elderly are not benefitting from free health services as the hospitals and clinics are always congested and there is also a shortage of drugs and medical personnel.

The problems of old age

- **Ageism.** This refers to prejudice and discrimination against older people. Examples of ageism include passing over qualified older job applicants in favor of younger workers or firing older workers first and forced retirement at work. Betty Friedan (1993), a pioneer of the modern feminist movement, believes that ageism is deeply rooted in our culture. She points out that few elderly people appear in the mass media; only a small percentage of television shows, for example, feature main characters over age sixty. More generally, when most of us think about older people, it is often in negative terms. Highly stigmatizing stereotypical roles for older people exist: think of phrases like 'grumpy old', 'silly old', 'boring old' and 'dirty old' man or woman (Kirkwood 2001). In Zimbabwe the old people are often accused of witchcraft especially those who come from rural areas. **Age stereotypes** are preconceived judgments about what different age groups are like. Stereotypes abound for both old and young people. **Age prejudice** refers to a negative attitude about an age group that is generalized to all people in that group. **Age discrimination** is the different and unequal treatment of people based solely on their age. Whereas age prejudice is an attitude, age discrimination involves actual behavior. As an example, people may talk "baby talk" to the elderly. Tis reinforces the stereotype of the elderly as childlike and incompetent.
- **Poverty**. An analysis of the Poverty Assessment Study Survey findings by Madzingira (1997) confirms that poverty in Zimbabwe is very high. She highlights that 78, 5% of the elderly in Zimbabwe were classified as poor or very poor. They experienced shortage of food, clothing, lack of or poor accommodation, ill health and lack of draught power for those residing in rural areas.
- **Mistreatment and Abuse**. As expected, with the biology of aging, the elderly sometimes become physically frail. This frailty renders them dependent on others for care sometimes for small needs like household tasks, and sometimes for assistance with basic functions like eating and toileting. Unlike a child, who also is dependent on another for care, an elder is an adult with a lifetime of experience, knowledge, and opinions—a more fully developed person. This makes the care-providing situation more complex. **Elder abuse** occurs when a caretaker intentionally deprives an older person of care or harms the person in his or her charge. Caregivers may be family members, relatives, friends
- **Ill-health**. Most old aged people suffers from old age related health problems such as prostate cancer , poor vision and arthritis
- **Neglect and abandonment**. The traditional social support systems of the family and community have been rendered ineffective as a result of the destabilizing effects of modernization, industrialization and urbanization and more recently globalization. Dhemba (1990) in a study carried out in Zimbabwe found that only 7, 5% of retirees

covered in the study were getting adequate support from their families. Some are socially excluded from the wider society as they are sent to old people's homes like:

- ❖ Zororai Old People's Home
- ❖ Mucheke old people's home
- ❖ Makoni Old People's Home in Rusape.
- ❖ Idawekwako Old Aged Home

- The Matron of Zororai Old People's Home Sr Blandina Mariko of the Roma Catholic Church says they are constrained when it comes to food provisions, money to get full time staff to look after the elderly.

Policies which cater for old age in Zimbabwe

- ➢ **Older Persons Act No. 1 of 2012 [CHAPTER 17:11]-** Recognizing old age as a distinct vulnerability, the government of Zimbabwe enacted the Older Persons Act of 2012 which provides for means-tested but non-contributory public assistance allowances among other services for the elderly.
  - ❖ However it excludes those aged 60 to 64 years as the minimum qualifying age threshold for the public assistance is 65 years and above and yet the onset of old age as defined by the United Nations is 60 years.
- ➢ **Pensions and Other Benefits Scheme**. The National Social Security Authority in Zimbabwe operates a contributory and compulsory Pensions and Other Benefits Scheme, which provides for retirement pension in old age among other services. This scheme was introduced in 1994 and because of its contributory nature it only caters for employees in the formal sector

Theoretical Perspectives on Age

1. Functionalism

- ➢ Functionalists find that people with better resources who stay active in other roles adjust better to old age (Crosnoe and Elder 2002).

(a) Disengagement theory

- ➢ Disengagement theory is the idea that society functions in an orderly way by removing people from positions of responsibility as they reach old age
- ➢ Disengagement ensures the orderly operation of society by removing aging people from productive roles before they are no longer able to perform them.
- ➢ Another benefit of disengagement in a rapidly changing society is that it makes room for young workers, who typically have the most up-to-date skills and training.
- ➢ According to this perspective, given the increasing frailty, illness and dependency of older people, it becomes all the more dysfunctional for them to occupy traditional social roles they are no longer capable of adequately fulfilling.
- ➢ Older people should therefore retire from their jobs, pull back from civic life and eventually withdraw from other activities as well.
- ➢ Disengagement is assumed to be functional for the larger society because it opens up roles that were formerly filled by older people to younger ones, who will presumably carry them out with fresh energy and new skills.

- Disengagement is also assumed to be functional for older people because it enables them to take on less taxing roles consistent with their advancing age and declining health.
- However, while there is obviously some truth to disengagement theory, the idea that older people should completely disengage from the larger society takes for granted the prevailing stereotype that later life necessarily involves frailty and dependence.

(b) Activity theory

- According to this theory, activity levels and social involvement are key to this process, and key to happiness (Havinghurst 1961; Neugarten 1964; Havinghurst, Neugarten, and Tobin 1968).
- According to this theory, the more active and involved an elderly person is, the happier he or she will be.
- However, critics of this theory point out that access to social opportunities and activity are not equally available to all
- Moreover, not everyone finds fulfillment in the presence of others or participation in activities.
- Reformulations of this theory suggest that participation in informal activities, such as hobbies, are what most effect later life satisfaction (Lemon, Bengtson, and Petersen 1972).

2. Conflict Perspective

- According to the guiding principle of conflict theory, social groups compete with other groups for power and scarce resources.
- Applied to society's aging population, the principle means that the elderly struggle with other groups—for example, younger society members—to retain a certain share of resources. At some point, this competition may become conflict. For example, some people complain that the elderly get more than their fair share of society's resources.

(a) Modernization theory

- (Cowgill and Holmes 1972) suggests that the primary cause of the elderly losing power and influence in society are the parallel forces of industrialization and modernization.
- As societies modernize, the status of elders decreases, and they are increasingly likely to experience social exclusion. Before industrialization, strong social norms bound the younger generation to care for the older.
- Now, as societies industrialize, the nuclear family replaces the extended family. Societies become increasingly individualistic, and norms regarding the care of older people change. In an individualistic industrial society, caring for an elderly relative is seen as a voluntary obligation that may be ignored without fear of social censure.
- As societies modernize, the elderly, unable to work outside of the home, have less to offer economically and are seen as a burden.

(b) Age stratification theory(Riley, Johnson, and Foner 1972**)**

- Age stratification is the unequal distribution of wealth, power, and privilege among people at different stages of the life course.
- Though it may seem obvious now, with our awareness of ageism, age stratification theorists were the first to suggest that members of society might be stratified by age, just as they are stratified by race, class, and gender.

- Because age serves as a basis of social control, different age groups will have varying access to social resources such as political and economic power.
- Within societies, behavioral age norms, including norms about roles and appropriate behavior, dictate what members of age cohorts may reasonably do. For example, it might be considered deviant for an elderly woman to wear a bikini because it violates norms denying the sexuality of older females. These norms are specific to each age strata, developing from culturally based ideas about how people should "act their age."

(c) Exchange theory (Dowd 1975)

- A rational choice approach, suggests we experience an increased dependence as we age and must increasingly submit to the will of others because we have fewer ways of compelling others to submit to us.
- Indeed, inasmuch as relationships are based on mutual exchanges, as the elderly become less able to exchange resources, they will see their social circles diminish. In this model, the only means to avoid being discarded is to engage in resource management, like maintaining a large inheritance or participating in social exchange systems via child care.

3. Symbolic Interactionism

- Symbolic interactionists stress that the changes associated with old age, in and of themselves, have no inherent meaning. Nothing in the nature of aging creates any particular, defined set of attitudes. Rather, attitudes toward the elderly are rooted in society.

(a) Subculture of aging theory (Rose 1962)

- Focuses on the shared community created by the elderly when they are excluded (due to age), voluntarily or involuntarily, from participating in other groups.
- This theory suggests that elders will disengage from society and develop new patterns of interaction with peers who share common backgrounds and interests.

(b) Gerotranscendence theory

- This theory parallels disengagement theory
- Swedish sociologist Lars Tornstam developed a symbolic interactionist theory called **gerotranscendence**: the idea that as people age, they transcend the limited views of life they held in earlier times. Tornstam believes that throughout the aging process, the elderly become less self-centered and feel more peaceful and connected to the natural world.
- Wisdom comesto the elderly, Tornstam's theory states, and as the elderly tolerate ambiguities and seeming contradictions, they let go of conflict and develop softer views of right and wrong (Tornstam 2005). Tornstam does not claim that everyone will achieve wisdom in aging. Some elderly people might still grow bitter and isolated, feel ignored and left out, or become grumpy and judgmental.

(c) Labelling theory(*refer to previous notes*)